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THE SOUTH AND THE UNION.

THE UNION, PAST AND PRESENT—HOW IT WORKS, AND HOW TO SAVE IT.

[Continued.]

A large extent of sea coast not only improves the climate, but greatly increases the facilities of commerce. This was one of the chief physical causes of the early prosperity of the nations on the Mediterranean, especially in the peninsulas of Italy and Greece, and it has been no small element of England's power. The southern States are eminently favored in this way. Their coast-line on the Atlantic and the Gulf is 7,033 miles, while the northern States have only 3,295. But, to appreciate the full advantage of the south, we must include the islands and the rivers, to the head of tide-water, which make her whole navigable coast-line 22,701 miles, while the northern is but 6,675. The very compact shape of the southern States make this great line of navigation available to nearly the whole country, while the reverse is the case at the north. The slaveholding States have an equal superiority in the extent of the steam navigation on the western rivers. The 1,000 miles of the Ohio may be considered common to the two sections, and so may the 2,000 miles of the Mississippi, though 1,230 of these lie exclusively in the south, while some 300 more divide Missouri from Illinois, and little over 400 are wholly in the free States. There are 2,655 miles of steam navigation on the Missouri and its tributaries, the most valuable part of which lies in a slave State; and, as the whole debouches at St. Louis, that city commands all its commerce. On the other tributaries of the great "father of waters," as well as of the Ohio, there are 5,029 miles of steam navigation

in the slave States, and only 2,300 in the free States. The whole commerce of the valley of the Mississippi, to which the greater part of the northwestern States belongs, is naturally dependent on the south for an outlet, which the south would probably find it to her interest to permit the free States to use. There is a natural equity in the free navigation of rivers by all the riparian powers, which was acknowledged in the treaty of Vienna, and applied to the Rhine and Danube, as a great principle of European national law. The cities and countries at the outlets of such streams gain the commercial command of all the country above, and, in case of war, a great military power. A large portion of the commerce of the free States in the northwest must always go to enrich New Orleans. The other part has to find its way to the seaboard by canals and railroads, at a cost of four per cent. in tolls; while a fourth part, probably, of northern commerce has to pass through southern States. There is no part of the south thus dependent on the north.

It is true that federal legislation has made a roundabout voyage by New York shorter for southern trade than the straight course to Europe, but there is no part of the slave States whose natural port is not at home. Two great lines of railroad will soon connect Chesapeake bay with the valley of the Ohio and the Lakes. A third line will stretch through the southwest to Memphis, on the Mississippi; while a fourth will form a continuous line, parallel to the coast, from Baltimore and Richmond, through Columbia and Atlanta, to Natchez, with numerous lateral feeders from the Piedmont vallies. Western commerce can reach the Atlantic by these southern lines more quickly than by the northern, and without any interruption from ice and snow in winter. They will concentrate a vast trade at Norfolk, Charleston, and Savannah. Nothing is wanting but the capital to complete their improvements, which the restoration of our natural commerce would at once supply. The same causes which have substituted steam for sails in inland navigation—the need for greater speed and certainty in the returns—will complete the change on the ocean, and give steamships the preference for commerce as well as passengers. We find that the custom-house returns show that the proportion of the imports into Boston, brought in steamers, is rapidly increasing. Swift steam vessels are now building in England, to be employed in the foreign grain trade.*

* Blackwood's Magazine, January, 1850.

This change must be of great advantage to Norfolk and Charleston, for the calms which make southern latitudes unfavorable for a sail voyage to Europe, will make them so much the better for steam. The trade in Indian corn and southern wheat (which, as we have seen, is drier, more nutritious, and better fitted for exportation than the northern) will be greatly augmented. The mouth of the Chesapeake is naturally a better position for a great city than the mouth of the Hudson. That beautiful bay, having all the advantages of a sea, without its storms, has 4,010 miles of tidewater shores, of which 2,373 miles are in navigable rivers—more than double the number in the States north of it. This noble system of rivers and bays may be said to be free from ice all the year, and waters one of the most highly favored countries in the world, both in the temperate climate, the rich and easily improved soil, and the variety of its productions. Add to this all the country that may be more readily connected by artificial communications with this point than any other, and there is no site on the Atlantic coast which should naturally command a larger commerce than Norfolk. We have explained the causes which have prevented the developement of these resources; but once remove the burdens, and restore southern capital to its producers, and the shipping of New York would soon whiten Hampton Roads, and her palaces embellish the shores of the Chesapeake. Charleston is connected with the same lines of railroad, and the cotton trade gives her equal or superior advantages. Mobile awaits but the loosening of her shackles to stretch an iron road to the Ohio. And who can predict the greatness of New Orleans, at the mouth of the Mississippi valley, with its area of a million of square miles, its steam navigation of 16,674 miles, and its commerce, already valued at \$200,000,000! What a position for that which has ever been the most lucrative commerce of the world—the exchange of the productions of temperate and highly civilized countries for the growth of tropical climates and less advanced societies! The Gulf of Mexico would be commanded by the slave States, and they would want nothing but Cuba to make it a southern lake. How long would they want that? Peaceable annexation would at once follow its independence of Spain, and that could not be delayed long after the separation of the north and the south. There is no just reason why England should desire to prevent its annexation now; and, in the event of a dissolution of the Union, it would be her interest to strengthen us, and she would be bound to the southern alliance by natural ties, and would have natural causes of hostility to the

north. The dependence of four millions of her people on the south for cotton, and of many more for food, would give the slave States a powerful hold upon the good will of her government—a hold that would strengthen with every year. No such ties would bind England to the free States. Producers of the same articles, and rivals in manufacturing industry, their commerce would be small and their interests adverse. This hostile feeling would be aggravated by a desire to possess Canada on the one hand, and a jealousy of its loss on the other. In any actual contest of arms the north would be particularly weak. Our engineer department says that “it must be admitted that the British possess the military command of lake Ontario.* This would facilitate the execution of the fine strategic design which they failed to accomplish in the revolution—to hold the line of the Hudson, and isolate New England from the other States. The Welland canal gives England the power of throwing vast supplies of every kind from lake Ontario, where she has the command of the upper lakes, and thus cutting off the western commerce from New York. It also places her in a position to strike at the line uniting the eastern and western free States, which offers peculiar advantages to a foe from either the north or the south. From Lake Erie to Pittsburg is little over one hundred miles, and might easily be held by an enemy, who had resources either on the lakes, or in Maryland and Virginia. The northern States might be thus completely sundered. The north-western States, commercially, belong rather to the south than the north, and their connexion with the eastern States would not be very strong. Events may easily be imagined which would separate a northern confederacy into two parts, the one leaning towards the south, and the other relying on a Canadian connexion; and, in estimating the relative capacity of such a confederacy for war, we must remember that the States which compose it now owe one hundred and ten millions of dollars, while the southern States only owe sixty millions.

When we consider all these facts, can we doubt that the free States will acknowledge the equality of the south, rather than return to their natural poverty and weakness by dissolving the Union?—that Union to which we of the south are so devotedly attached, and to whose preservation we are willing to sacrifice everything but our honor.

We have seen that the north possesses none of the material

* 19 Ex. Doc. 1847-8, p. 50.

elements of greatness in which the south abounds, whether we regard the productions of the soil, the access to the markets of the world, or the capacity of military defence. While the slave States produce nearly everything within themselves, the free States will soon depend on them even for food, as they now do for rice, sugar, tobacco, and cotton—the employment of their ships in southern commerce, the employment of their labor in the manufacture of southern cotton, and all that they can purchase of other countries with the fabrics of that great southern staple. We have shown that the price of that staple must be permanently raised; how would the manufacturing industry of the free States stand this rise, if their taxes were raised by a dissolution of the Union? and how would their laborers subsist under this new burden, if they at once lost the employment afforded by the free use of one hundred and forty millions of southern capital, and the disbursement of twenty millions of southern taxes? The answer to this question will bring us to the last view we shall present of our subject, and will show that the Union has, in truth, inestimable worth for the north. It defies all the powers of figures to calculate the value to the free States of the conservative influence of the south upon their social organization.

The great sore of modern society is the war between capital and labor. The fruits of any enterprise of industry have to repay all the wages of the labor employed in it, and the remainder is the profit of capital. Every man knows that the profit he can make on any undertaking depends upon the expenses, and that the chief part of these is the hire of the necessary labor; the cheaper he can get that, the more clear gain is left him. It is obvious, upon this statement, that the lower the wages, the higher are the profits; and it is the interest of capital to reduce them to the lowest point, as it is of labor to reduce the profits. Free competition is continually bringing down the prices of the productions of industry, and the capitalist has to meet this effect by lessening the cost of production, and to lower the wages is one of the readiest ways to accomplish this end. It is true that the laws of nature, if left uninterrupted, will adjust the shares of wages and profits in a certain ratio to each other; and in a young and flourishing country, where every addition to the stock of capital and labor employed is attended by a proportional or greater increase of the gross returns, these shares will continue the same, or even increase.

In such a case, the natural opposition of interest between the laborer and capitalist is not felt; but the moment any

cause interrupts the operation of these natural laws, or diminishes the productiveness of the new labor annually brought into action, one or both must diminish, for the whole returns to be divided are less in proportion to the number of those who are to receive. Each will try to get the most he can, and throw the whole loss upon the other; and in this strife capital has an immense advantage. It can easily be transferred from less to more profitable employments, and from countries where its rewards are low to those where they are high. We have seen an example of this operation in the steady flow of capital from Europe to this country. Labor has no such facility; no freight is so costly as that of man. Poverty and ignorance combine with local affections and habits to tie the laborer to his native district, and even to the employment to which he has been trained. Emigration is the exception, not the rule; it is only for the comparatively well off—those who have something—not for the countless crowd of poor who live by their daily toil. Hence the supply of labor remains steady, while the demand—that is, the supply of capital—is readily reduced, and profits are easily increased at the expense of wages. The same result is produced by other yet more inevitable causes; the very diminution of the returns of industry retards the rate at which capital can accumulate. Meantime population continues to increase at its former rate, and with it the supply of labor, for the fall in wages, which must follow, cannot check the increase of population, except by pinching them with the want of subsistence; but it is a slow and uncertain check, even in that way. It will have no such effect where the population is content to live upon an inferior kind of food—upon potatoes instead of corn, as has been the case in Ireland, and even in the eastern free States. No people breed faster than these potato eaters. The necessary fall in wages then goes on with accelerated velocity, as population outruns capital in its increase, and begins to press upon the means of subsistence. The result is before us in the starving laborers of Europe, when the wages of a week's labor, for 14 hours a day, are often only 36 cents a week! In 1842, in Manchester, 2,000 families, 8,136 persons, were reduced to this standard of subsistence; and in other years their condition has been still worse! We have before alluded to the signs, that the north is not very far distant from this pressure of population upon the means of living, which she is obliged ultimately to reach. Statistics show a gradual but certain decline in the wages of labor in the older parts of the free States. The destitution of the poor in the northern cities is annually increasing,

and there has been a frightful growth of pauperism. Mr. Fisher says that in Massachusetts—the model State—it reaches 1 in 20. In England it is but double, 1 in 10. Meat is no longer the daily food of the eastern laborer; and one of the answers from Maine to the Treasury circular in 1845 says that an able bodied man cannot possibly support himself and his wife by agricultural labor. We have seen that the supply of food was already deficient in the eastern States, and that in Ohio it had reached its maximum point; in other words, that every future increase would be attended with more than a proportional increase of cost. Add to this the growing disposition of northern population to desert agricultural employments, which must be partly due to their diminished returns, its tendency to concentrate in towns and factories, its rapid rate of natural increase, and its still greater increase by emigration from abroad, and we can have no doubt that northern laborers are increasing faster than northern capital. Hence a pressure upon the means of subsistence, and a still greater fall in wages cannot be far off. It would be heavy and instantaneous were the Union dissolved, for that event would, as we have shown, not only throw 20 millions of dollars of new taxes upon the north, but would withdraw 140 millions of capital which now employs her labor. This loss would fall chiefly, if not entirely, upon wages. The northern capitalist would not submit to a decrease of profit, but would send a part of his capital to the south, where profits were higher, until he had reduced wages at home to a point which would leave him nearly as much clear gain on his industry as before. He would in this way escape the whole burden of the new taxes, and throw it upon labor.

In fact, in all old communities we find that the soils which had been most fertile when virgin and fresh are exhausted by continual cultivation; and every year the want of food forces a resort to lands which were at first rejected as too poor. The returns of agriculture are, therefore, subject to a steady and natural decline, which cannot be arrested except by the means of improvement, which modern science has discovered. The cultivation of the earth is rapidly assuming a new and scientific character; it is becoming almost a species of manufacturing industry. To be conducted to the best advantage, it will require the application of comparatively large capitals, in draining, liming, sub-soiling, and all the modern elements of "*high farming*;" and it will demand the direction of superior minds to control and organize the labor, of which there must be a certain and regular supply. This necessity is already

felt in England. In the model county of Lincoln, the different operations of farming are let out by contract to *gang masters*, who have numbers of laborers, regularly enrolled, ready to undertake any job that may be offered. These gangs are sent a considerable distance in wagons, and men, women, and children, separated from their homes and families, sleep all huddled together in barns, till the contract is completed. "When agriculture thus passes into the manufacturing state," as M. Leon Fancher, the late minister of the interior in France, says, "we must not be surprised at the effects of the transformation in the servitude and demoralization of the laborers." Any real and extensive improvement of agriculture in France and the free States must be attended with similar consequences, for these requirements of scientific farming cannot be met, with due regard to the morals and comfort of laborers, except in a slaveholding community. The slave feels all the wholesome influences of moral life, near his home, and beneath the guardian care of his master, while the owner can obtain all the efficiency of gang and factory organization, without any of its evils. Hence it is that the highest practical examples of agricultural science in the Union are to be found in the southern States, despite all their burdens. We have seen what Mr. Solon Robinson says of the wheat culture in Virginia, and recent authentic statements have proved that grain crops are nowhere raised with more profit than in tidewater Virginia, where the slaves are most numerous. There is no farming country north of Virginia which can compare with the valley of the James river for skill, extensive enterprise, and success. If we go further south, Mr. Skinner says, that the rice plantations of Carolina are among the best models of agriculture in the world. Mr Fleischman* says that it would astonish many a northern farmer to behold the vast canals of the sugar planters, and the immense steam engines at work in draining them—canals which, "if joined together, would well deserve the name of a great national work of internal improvement, but executed without any assistance from the State." He "cannot describe his delight" at the perfection of the cultivation and the beauty of the residences which line the banks of the lower Mississippi. All this is the work of slave institutions, where circumstances have afforded some compensation for the burden of the federal government. And the slaves themselves live in a state of comfort—we had almost said of luxury—superior to many a northern farmer. The free States have none of these advantages; free labor is not capable of such an organ-

* Patent Office Report, 1848.

ization in agriculture, except by lowering its condition to the level of the degraded operatives of European factories; and capital cannot be employed to the greatest profit on minute farms, whose holders have neither courage to risk it, credit to command it, nor skill to apply it.

The combination of such causes has aggravated the war between labor and capital in the old countries, and especially in France, until it has brought about the late socialist upheaving of the very foundations of society. Hence we hear so much of "the right to labor," which means a right to better wages; hence the war upon property, and law, and order, which threatens a worse than Vandal overthrow of European civilization. It is true that the remedy applied by the suffering laborer increases the evil—that whatever weakens confidence in the right of property retards the increase of public wealth, and cuts off the very springs of that comfort and well-being which they would use violence to share. It is true, that the laboring class cannot hold the unwonted power it may have seized; that the triumph of to-day must be followed by the defeat of to-morrow, and that the February saturnalia in the Tuilleries must be expiated by the June carnage in the streets. But when have the slaves of hunger ever listened to reason? The laboring poor cannot but remember the wan faces of their shivering wives, the piteous plaints of their children begging for bread, when they see the costly fur, the dainty food, and luxuries of the rich. Their city palaces and country villas, their "pride that apes humility" in Gothic cottages and model farms, but serve to make the garrets look more wretched, the fetid cellars darker and damper. The black mouldy loaf is worse than the crumbs which Lazarus may pick up at Dives' door. The stables, the very pig-stye of the lord of the loom, is better than the hovel of his factory operative, who, like the prodigal son, would fain fill his belly with the husks of his lord's swine, but, unlike that son, there is no father to array him in purple and fine linen, and kill for him the fatted calf; he must toil for his bread by incessant labor, for 12 or 14 hours a day, and when strength and youth are wasted, and he is weak and weary with sickness and premature old age, he is cast forth upon the cold charity of an almshouse. When the poor man sees all this, and thinks that his hands have worked to build up the wealth and luxury which the rich exclusively enjoy, can we wonder that the thought eats into his heart, and goads him on to deeds of madness and violence? So has it been in Europe, and what security have the free States that the same inexorable fatality

will not overtake them? The south has the guarantee of negro slavery; capitalist and laborer, master and slave, are indissolubly united in interest; even if the owner cannot profitably employ and support the laborer, his interest prompts him to transfer him by sale to those who can. In the south, society is divided into masters and slaves; at the north, into rich and poor; and what shall protect her people from the social war which that division has begotten in the history of every similar community? The dark cloud lowers upon their horizon; its low mutterings are already heard. Every year a larger number is supported by the alms of the States; the criminal statistics show a frightful increase of crime, especially in *offences against property*; the right to gratuitous education by the forced taxes of the property holder is already a part of the public law, and societies are formed to establish a similar right to an equal division of lands. They declare that the earth is the gift of God for the common use—that no one has a right to monopolise it for himself and his posterity—and that every man has a natural claim to an equal share in its enjoyment. The next step is to deny the right to transmit any kind of property by will or by inheritance, and to force a general re-division in every generation, if not an entire community of ownership.

DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES.

GROWTH OF THE DIPLOMATIC SYSTEM—USAGE UNDER DIFFERENT ADMINISTRATIONS—SALARIES—OUTFITS, ETC., ETC.

In the May number of the Review, some references were made to the change about to be consummated in the diplomatic and consular system, and a digest was presented of the leading features of the new law, introduced by the Hon. John Perkins, of Louisiana.

The following notes by that gentleman will be read with interest everywhere:

The Constitution went into operation on the 4th of March, 1789. The first executive session was held on the 25th May, 1789, and to it General Washington proposed the regulation, by treaty with France, of the functions and prerogatives of consuls.

On the 16th June, 1789, William Short was nominated and confirmed minister to France, in place of Mr. Jefferson, who desired to return.

On July 27th, 1789, Congress established a Department and Secretary of Foreign Affairs, which, on the 15th of December of the same year, was changed into the present Department and Secretary of State.

The Secretary of this Department was to be appointed by the President, and to correspond with our consuls and minis-

ters, and to "attend to such other matters respecting foreign affairs" as the President should assign to his department. On the 22d December, 1791, Pinckney, of South Carolina, was nominated by General Washington minister to London, and Governor Morris, of Pennsylvania, minister to Paris.

It was upon these nominations that the Senate discussed the policy of permanent over special missions to foreign courts, common under the confederation. Permanent missions were preferred, and Pinckney and Morris confirmed.

The first act of Congress, after the formation of the government, making appropriation for diplomatic intercourse, was passed July 1, 1790.

It authorized the President to draw from the treasury an annual sum, not exceeding \$40,000, for the support and incidental expense of such persons as he should commission in the foreign service.

The amount of salary to be paid each was left to the President's discretion, except that (exclusive of outfit, which was not to be more than one year's salary) no minister plenipotentiary should be paid more than \$9,000, nor a *chargé* more than \$4,500, nor the secretary of the minister more than \$1,350.

The salaries and outfits continued unchanged until May 1, 1810, when Congress raised the allowance for salary to the secretary of any legation from \$1,350 to \$2,000, and confined the allowance for outfit to ministers plenipotentiary or *chargés* on going from the United States to any foreign country.

General Washington exercised the power granted by Congress, and appointed ministers and consuls abroad, with the highest salaries permitted by law. Having lived under the English diplomatic and consular systems, they were followed in their appointments in rank, except that no ambassador was sent or received.

The term ambassador, in diplomatic language, describes the *personal representative* of a sovereign, and differs from a mere minister, in that the latter *represents his nation*.

The actual diplomatic grades were: *minister plenipotentiary* and *envoy extraordinary*, *minister resident*, and *chargé d'affaires*, with *secretaries* for each legation.

In 1802, under Mr. Jefferson, these systems had been in existence a little more than ten years, and comprehended ministers plenipotentiary to France, England, Madrid, and Portugal, and a secretary to each legation—four ministers plenipotentiary, and four secretaries of legation.

A minister resident and a secretary of legation to the Hague—one minister resident, and one secretary of legation.

There were at the same time in service abroad two sets of commissions, under the sixth and seventh articles of the treaty with Great Britain, with an agent attached; making in diplomatic service eighteen persons.

There were consuls general at Amsterdam, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Morocco—five consuls general.

Two agents for the relief of American seamen; one at London, and the other at Kingston, Jamaica—two agents.

There were fifty-one consuls, three vice consuls, and four commercial agents in the consular service—sixty-five persons.

Making in the foreign service of the government abroad, in all, eighty-three persons.

Total expense of their salaries, \$105,597 17.

The consuls general were salaried; consuls and vice consuls, and commercial agents, were supported by fees.

From 1800 to the present time, our diplomatic and consular systems have remained without important modifications. In that period we have made great advances in wealth and power:

	1800.	1850.
Population.....	5,305,925	23,191,876
Area of territory.....	820,630	2,936,166
Exports.....	\$70,971,780	\$151,898,720
Imports.....	\$91,252,768	\$178,138,318
Tonnage.....	972,492	3,535,454
Seamen.....	60,000	140,000
Commercial treaties with.....	5 nations.	19 nations.
Revenues of government.....	\$10,624,997	\$43,375,798
Expenses of government.....	\$7,411,370	\$43,002,168
Expenses of foreign service	\$153,000	\$412,789 71

The Congress of European powers that met at Vienna on the settlement of peace in Europe, agreed upon a grade of diplomatic rank which, when generally adopted, should prevent all embarrassments of etiquette in the conduct of future negotiations. We were not a party to that Congress, and have never modified our system to correspond to the grades of diplomacy then established. The consequence has been, that at many of the European courts our ministers have never been admitted to the presence of the sovereign except as a favor; and on public and state occasions, and in the transaction of business, and in the paying and receiving of visits, the representatives of the smaller courts of Europe have had precedence over them.

The grades, as established by the Congress of Vienna and

amended by that of Aix-la-Chapelle, and at present recognized by European nations, are—

1. Ambassador.
2. Envoys, ministers, or others accredited to sovereigns.
3. Minister resident.
4. *Chargés des affaires*, accredited to the minister of foreign affairs; and secretaries of legation.

Ambassador, in diplomatic language, is the representative of the *person* of a sovereign, and in this differs from a mere minister, who represents the nation. The bill raises all our missions to the grade of envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary. This change involves no sacrifice of principles, nor additional expenditure. Representatives, with but one exception, below this grade are considered as accredited to the minister of the foreign department, and not to the sovereign of the State. It is a distinction, that, in point of fact, is recognised in the reception of ministers from foreign States by our own government, and there is no reason why the embarrassment under which the present system places our own ministers should not be removed.

Foreign ministers exist, and their rights, duties, and powers are determined by general assent and the laws of nations. They are the necessary agents of communication between governments. They represent the disposition and interests of one government to the ruling power of another government. Under instructions, they negotiate treaties of commerce, give information about our laws and in every way are expected, by the cultivation of friendly relations and good understanding to exert themselves to preserve peace. Under such circumstances, they should be free from all unnecessary embarrassment. If engaged in important negotiations, the good will of the ruler will greatly facilitate them, and this is best secured by personal intercourse. Under the new bill, this advantage will be secured, and our diplomatic grades at the same time simplified to the nature of our institutions. A law passed last year enabled all our representatives of the grade of *chargé* to be accredited as ministers resident. This bill, by establishing but one rank for all, that of ministers plenipotentiary, will cause that, wherever we send a representative, he shall be recognised as the equal of the representative of any other country, and that under no possible circumstance can his rank be made an obstacle to his influence.

A provision for outfit and infit was originally made in imitation of the display that characterized the diplomacy of Europe. Court etiquette and state ceremony formerly occu-

pied a great portion of the diplomatist's time. Cabinet secrets were confined to the few, and the giving of presents, and costly display in dress and living, were recognised as legitimate and practical modes of influence. At the foundation of our government, therefore, these appendages may have been wisely provided for as adding to the dignity and influence of our foreign ministers. The means of travel were then more tedious and expensive. From Washington to London, by the best and most expeditious means of conveyance, costs now not more than \$170; to Paris, \$200; to Berlin, \$250; to Vienna, \$300; and less than this to most of the other European capitals. There did not then exist at the different courts of Europe the same facilities for elegance and comfort in a temporary residence, and ambassadors from one country to another were obliged either to carry these with them or to incur great expense in their purchase. Outfits and infits for foreign ministers were, for these reasons, furnished by all the governments of Europe. Within the last sixty-five years, however, great changes have taken place in these respects in all the European States.

In illustration of the feeling of the day, I would recall to the recollection of the House the great embarrassment experienced by Congress in 1778, on the reception of M. Gerard, the first French minister. The subject was referred to a committee, composed of Richard Henry Lee, Samuel Adams, and Gouverneur Morris, whose report on the subject, turning on mere points of etiquette, was discussed for five days. In the end he was received with a degree of formality that cannot be read without a smile. After providing that he should be called on by two members of Congress, the programme of his reception continues :

"At the time he is to receive his audience, the two members shall again wait upon him in a coach belonging to the States, and the person first named of the two shall return with the minister plenipotentiary, or envoy, in the coach, giving the minister the right hand, and placing himself on the left, with the other member on the first seat. When the minister plenipotentiary, or envoy, is arrived at the door of the Congress hall, he shall be introduced to his chair by the two members, who shall stand at his left hand. When the minister is introduced to his chair by the two members he shall sit down. His secretary shall then deliver to the President the letter of his sovereign, which shall be read and translated by the secretary of Congress. Then the minister shall be announced, at which time the President, the House, and the minister shall rise together. The minister shall then bow to the President and the House, and they to him. The minister and the President shall then bow to each other and be seated, after which the House shall sit down. The minister shall deliver his speech standing. The President and the House shall sit while the minister is delivering his speech. The House shall rise, and the President shall deliver the answer standing. The minister shall stand while the President delivers his answer. Having spoken and being answered, the minister and President shall bow to each other, at which time the House shall bow, and then the minister shall be conducted home in the manner in which he was brought to the House."

But a short time before this, Silas Dean, our minister at Paris, wrote home from France to Congress for some of the natural products of the country, to be given, by way of influence, as presents to the Queen. He said in his letter, speaking of Marie Antoinette:

"December 3, 1776.—The Queen is fond of parade, and, I believe, wishes for war, and is our friend. She loves riding on horseback. Could you send me a fine Narragansett horse or two? The money would be well laid out. Rittenhouse's aviary, or Arnold's collection of insects, a phaeton of American make and a pair of bay horses, a few barrels of apples, walnuts, cranberries, butternuts, &c., would be great curiosities."

During General Washington's administration, presents of form were given to foreign ministers, generally a chain and medal of gold; and there yet exists a letter of Jefferson's, dated New York, April 30, 1790, written to Paris, directing the manner in which the medal was to be cast. He desired it inscribed with "peace and commerce," and "the date of the republic." We are accustomed to speak of the simplicity of these early days without very exact ideas of what this simplicity consisted in; but long after Mr. Jefferson's time the circular from the State Department to our foreign ministers informed them that with certain "papers, books, and documents," necessary or useful in the discharge of their mission, they would receive "an engraved design of the uniform worn by the ministers of the United States at foreign courts on occasions when full dress is required;" and that the expense of "presents to the menial attendants at court, and of the public functionaries," at their presentation, and on other established occasions, "usually Christmas and New Year's day," would be allowed as contingencies by the department.

There exist to this time in the State Department plates showing the pattern of dress and amount of gold embroidery and lace to be worn by our ministers abroad, and its various modifications under different administrations.

Diplomacy and the spirit of the age have, in a great degree, outgrown all this, and a foreign minister is not now so much the *court congratulator* as the *business* agent of his government; and it is more his exact knowledge of the progress and development of the trade and material interest of his country, and the history of its law and legislation, as affecting other countries, and indicating the spirit and tendency of public opinion at home, that gives him influence, than the costliness of his living, or the degree of lustre he can contribute to the brilliancy of court displays.

The provision, therefore, for outfits and infits does not now accord either with the changed spirit of diplomacy or the prin-

ciples upon which our other public servants are compensated, it pays for services before they are performed. No longer necessary for its original purpose, it is often expended in the payment of debts contracted before going abroad, and thus serves only to make unequal the salaries of ministers, and, in a degree, to demoralize the whole diplomatic system. A minister plenipotentiary, under our present system, appointed to represent us abroad, if he remains at his post but a single day, is still entitled to his outfit of \$9,000; if he remains but one year, he receives \$20,250. In practice it has been that a person who is thus appointed remains two years, draws an outfit of \$9,000, a salary for two years of \$18,000, and an outfit of \$2,250, making, in all, near \$30,000 for two years, equal to a salary of about \$15,000 a year, and then returns home, to be succeeded by another, who pursues the same course. When there is an exception to this, and one is suffered to remain abroad, irrespective of party changes, from his superior fitness to represent the country, deprived of the advantage of the outfit—recurring every few years—he struggles on with an inadequate salary, and in the end returns in embarrassed circumstances.

NOTE 1.—From a French writer of the day, quoted by Lyman, we have the following description of Doctor Franklin's appearance at the French court:

"Franklin appeared at court in the dress of an American cultivator. His straight unpowdered hair, his round hat, his brown cloth coat, formed a contrast with the laced and embroidered coats and the powdered and perfumed heads of the courtiers of Versailles."

The costume worn by American representatives abroad, and the modifications to which it has been subjected at different periods of our history, will appear from the following extracts:

Mr. Gallatin, soon after his appointment as one of the commissioners to Ghent, wrote (April 22, 1813) to the State Department, inquiring if the President had intended to prescribe any uniform to be worn by our representatives abroad. If any was to be prescribed, he recommended that it should be as simple as possible, with very little lace, which was common in liveries, and without epaulettes, which he thought should be exclusively for the army and navy. That, for his own part, he preferred a black coat to any uniform.

A uniform was determined upon, but seems never to have been prescribed. The State Department, after this date, usually sent with his commission, to each newly appointed minister abroad, an engraved pattern of the dress he was recommended to wear on state occasions.

The following circular was issued under Mr. Monroe's administration:

Memorandum of the dress of an American minister, as fixed by the mission to Ghent.

"A blue coat, lined with white silk, straight standing cape, embroidered with gold, single-breasted, or round button-holes, slightly embroidered; buttons plain, or, if they can be had, with the artillerist's eagle stamped upon them, (i. e., an eagle flying with a wreath in his mouth, and grasping lightning with one of its talons;) cuffs embroidered in the manner of the cape; white cassimere breeches, gold knee-buckles; white silk stockings, and gold or gilt shoe-buckles; a three-cornered *chapeau de bras*, not so large as those used by the French, nor so small as those of the English; a black cockade, to which lately an eagle has been attached; sword, &c., corresponding.

"On occasions of unusual ceremony the minister was to wear a coat similar to

that above described, but embroidered round the skirts and down the breasts, as well as at the cuffs and cape, all the other parts of the dress remaining the same. The coats to be distinguished as the *great* and the small uniform. There should be a white ostrich feather or plume in the minister's hat—not standing erect, but sewed round the brim."

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, November 6, 1817.

A circular under Mr. Adams' administration.

"This uniform was adopted for the convenience of visiting in the same dress upon all necessary occasions and at every court. The use of it is in no case prescribed by this government, and every minister of the United States abroad may wear, at his discretion, any dress conformably with the customs of the place where he may reside. The engraved design furnished is, however, specially recommended, on account of the uniformity which it produces on the dress of our ministers abroad."

A circular under General Jackson's administration.

WASHINGTON, November 2, 1829.

"The President has thought proper to adopt the following as the dress to be used by our ministers and other diplomatic agents upon all such occasions, which is recommended as well by its comparative cheapness as its adaptation to the simplicity of our institutions: A black coat with a gold star on each side of the collar, near its termination; the under-clothes to be black, blue, or white, at the option of the wearer; a three-cornered *chapeau de bras*, a black cockade and eagle, and a steel mounted sword, with a white scabbard. It is to be understood, however, that the use of this particular dress is not prescribed by the President. It is suggested by his direction as an appropriate and convenient uniform dress for the use of ministers and other diplomatic agents of the United States."

From this date down to the issue of Mr. Marcy's circular on the subject, there was no further modification.

NOTE 2.—Salaries of English ministers, in pounds.

France—Ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary.....	£10,000
Austria—Ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary.....	9,000
Turkey—Ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary.....	7,000
Russia—Envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary.....	6,000
Spain—Envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary.....	6,000
Prussia—Envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary.....	5,000
United States—Envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary....	4,500
Two Sicilies—Envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary.....	4,000
Portugal—Envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary.....	4,000
Brazil—Envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary.....	4,000
Netherlands—Envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary.....	3,600
Belgium—Envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary.....	3,600
Sardinia—Envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary.....	3,600
Denmark—Envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary.....	3,600
Sweden—Envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary.....	3,000
Switzerland—Minister plenipotentiary.....	2,000
Mexico—Minister plenipotentiary.....	3,600
Buenos Ayres—Minister plenipotentiary.....	3,000

NOTE 3.—Diplomatic expense—France.

	1844.	1848.	1852.		1844.	1848.	1852.
	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.		Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
London.....	284,275 00	150,000 00	250,000 00	Mexico.....	80,000 00	60,000 00	70,000 00
St. Petersburg.....	145,000 00	120,000 00	200,000 00	Rio de Janeiro.....	37,916 68	60,000 00	70,000 00
Madrid.....	150,000 00	80,000 00	120,000 00	Turin.....	56,875 00	50,000 00	60,000 00
Vienna.....	200,000 00	90,000 00	110,000 00	The Hague.....	70,000 00	50,000 00	60,000 00
Rome.....	120,000 00	90,000 00	110,000 00	Berne.....	45,838 31	50,000 00	55,000 00
Constantinople.....	93,220 20	80,000 00	100,000 00	Brussels.....	60,000 00	40,000 00	55,000 00
Berlin.....	91,666 65	70,000 00	100,000 00	Lis'bon.....	52,500 00	40,000 00	50,000 00
Naples.....	90,000 00	60,000 00	80,000 00	Copenhagen.....	38,333 32	40,000 00	45,000 00
Washington.....	65,545 00	60,000 00	80,000 00	Stockholm.....	50,000 00	40,000 00	45,000 00

SOURCES FROM WHICH GREAT EMPIRES COME.

IMMIGRATION—SOURCE OF NATIONAL GREATNESS, ILLUSTRATED IN THE PROGRESS OF ANCIENT NATIONS, IN THAT OF THE UNITED STATES, AND WITH REFERENCE TO TEXAS.

In the struggles of the human mind after truth, it has never been more fatally misled than in estimating the relations of cause and effect. The explanation of all that is intricate and mysterious in the experience of man has been sought for in some equally intricate and mysterious cause. Among the ancients it was Jupiter that hurled lightnings through the skies, and shook the earth with thunderbolts. The astronomers of Greece and Egypt placed a deity in each heavenly orb, and marked out for its motions a system of cycles and epicycles through which even a deity might have been puzzled to guide its way. And in every era the agencies of the spirit world have been made responsible for all the unusual phenomena of nature, and all the extraordinary experiences of the human soul.

The discoveries of science, however, have shown that the means through which nature performs even her profoundest operations are all of the simplest kind, and that the darkened intellect of man alone had thrown around them the veil of mystery. The genius of Franklin has wrested the thunderbolt from the hand of Jove, and made the secret of the lightning as luminous as its own rays. Those movements of the skies around which Thales and Anaxagoras wrapt their mystic fancies, and the Ptolemies built their gigantic theories, the labors of Newton have explained by a principle easy enough for the veriest child to grasp. And the researches of modern philosophy, like the morning light, are fast driving ghost and goblin from the haunts of men, and reducing to merely physical causes some of the profoundest mysteries of human life.

What is so true of the natural is not false in the political world. The circumstances which contribute to the rise and fall of empires, the causes of national prosperity and happiness, and the influences which mould the character of a State, all of which were once considered too recondite for man to investigate, or were explained by metaphysical theories and the direct interference of God, a truer philosophy is now referring to the operation of simply physical laws.

Among the many similar influences which are proved by history, as well as science, to be concerned in national growth, there is one so simple it is not singular it should be despised, yet so potent, it is strange it should be so often overlooked; it

is the amalgamation, within the limits of race, of nations and ranks that differ widely in birthplace, character, and life.

Glance for a moment at the origin of the greatest nations that have ever ruled our earth, either by the majesty of intellect or the might of arms. Let Greece, the hero's and the poet's land,

" Whose soil, from plain to mountain cave,
Was freedom's home or glory's grave,"

answer "the question of her birth." She sprang from no consecrated blood. Her youth was the object of no "selected influences." The earliest records of her history find a horde of barbarous tribes crawling among those hills which in after years so often echoed with the poet's song and the victor's shout. In this degraded condition she remained till the irruption of various colonies from Egypt, Phœnicia, and the remoter regions of the east started anew the current of life. The introduction of these foreign elements was like the descent of rain upon the barren earth. From the depths of barbarism there soon sprang "the arts of war and peace," the institutions of society, an organized system of government, the most polished language ever moulded by human thought, and a literature which has never been surpassed.

Rome, too, "the land of scholars and the nurse of arms," the empire that centered within its gates for eighteen centuries the intellect and the enterprise of the world, looks back to a parentage even more promiscuous and insignificant. The builders of the "eternal city" were a band of robbers collected from all quarters of the world. Their wives were stolen by craft and violence from a neighboring tribe. Their rulers held out special inducements for the reckless and roving of every country and kin to join their ranks. The young empire, in its very infancy, began

"To roll the crimson tide of war."

A procession of prisoners and booty never ceased to pour through its gates. Here, in one mighty mass, mingled conqueror and captive, noble and base, freeman and slave.

Out of such materials, like some stately tree that roots best in the filthy soil, in three centuries grew the republic of Rome. The same elements that nourished her younger life contributed to her meridian strength. Conqueror succeeded conqueror, domain was added to domain, until, finally, there were no people that had not their representatives at Rome, and no part of the ancient world over which the eagles of her empire did not cast their wings.

The origin of the British empire is not more glorious than

those of her two mighty predecessors. The earliest records of history represent the Britains as sunk in the depths of superstition and barbarism. In this condition they remained till the first century of the Christian era, when they were attacked by the Roman legions, and became the prey of "great Cæsar's ambition." Four centuries after, they were freed from the yoke of Rome only to be ravaged by the Picts, Scots, and Caledonians of the north. All these, in turn, were subdued by a band of Saxon pirates, who crowded over from the German seas. In the eighth century the country was again invaded by the Norman hordes. For two hundred years it resounded with the incessant clash of arms. At last, under the heroic Alfred, all these discordant elements were united in one harmonious whole. From this era England may date the commencement of her career. The countless armies which subsequently were poured into it from the continent, and, finally, the union of the three kingdoms under a single crown, all contributed, through the operation of the same great principle, to make that empire which can boast among its children the mightiest warriors and the profoundest scholars the world has ever seen, and "which has dotted over the surface of the whole globe with those possessions and military posts, whose morning drum-beat following the sun and keeping company with the hours, circles the earth daily with one continuous and unbroken strain of the martial airs of England."

Consider, next, the origin of that land which bids fair to rival classic Greece in the glory of its letters, republican Rome in the purity and extent of its liberty, and haughty England in the breadth of its dominions and the prowess of its arms—our own beloved America. No children of royal blood were selected to found the new empire of freedom; "no effeminate nobility crowded into the austere ranks of the Pilgrims; no Carr or Villiers lead on the ill-provided band of Puritans; no well endowed clergy quit their cathedrals to set up a pompous hierarchy in the frozen wilderness." No; it was the poor, the despised, the ignorant, the abandoned, the reckless, the persecuted, the outcast of every land and lineage that flocked to American shores; it was not castles and cathedrals, but almshouses and hospitals that were opened, and prison doors that were unbarred, to lay the foundations of the power beyond the waves. Yet, in pursuit of this promiscuous rabble, and leaving the crowned heads and the sounding titles of Europe,

"Westward the star of empire took its way."

The virtues of a mighty people grew with amazing rapidity

in the blood so widely compounded. Victory, when they warred, soon learned to hover over the offspring of the criminal and the outcast, and wisdom to crown their councils, when at peace. The causes which commenced have ever been contributing to nourish our strength. The asylum of the weary and wandering, wherever they were born, has been in our midst. And as the blood of every nation that treads upon the earth is throbbing in Americans veins, so it is no exaggeration to say that the energy and enterprise of all the world bid fair to concentrate upon American shores.

If these positive examples are not enough to prove our position, look at the negative arguments which are afforded by the history of China, and the condition of European aristocracy.

The annals of the "Celestial empire" may be traced back, with certainty, to the second or third century after the flood. During all this long period which has since intervened, it has been the policy of each successive government to shut up the country in "the gloom of its own exclusiveness." The people have been too tame and spiritless to engage in wars of conquest. Commerce with foreign nations has been prohibited by stringent laws. Colonies have never been allowed to immigrate from foreign lands; and the angels might as soon think of emigrating from heaven as the Chinese of leaving their celestial abode. Even the ravages of the Tartars, while they have subverted so many dynasties from the throne, have introduced no new elements among the masses of the people. Their intercourse at home has been scarcely greater than that abroad. Different provinces are bound together by no congenital ties. Cities have known each other only as "a tale that is told." And whole generations have been born and lived and died within the same brick walls.

The degrading influence of the policy thus pursued is evident in every feature of the nation's character. China almost realizes the story of the petrified city in the Arabian Nights. The whole current of life has been stagnated. The growth of civilization has been stopped. Generation after generation has witnessed the same customs and habits in society. Age after age has rolled away without evolving a single idea of its own. For thousands of years the peasant has done as his fathers did. The mechanic of to day understands his art no better than the blunderer who hit upon it at first. And the wisdom and knowledge of the modern sages are just as little as those of Confucius in the mystic pages of the Yking.

But this exclusive intercourse has not operated more injuriously upon the Chinese than it has upon the upper classes—

as they are called—among the more civilized nations of the earth. In all the States of Europe there are certain ranks which receive social honors and political privileges, that are denied to the mass of their fellow men. In order to prevent the noble qualities with which they suppose themselves endowed from oozing away among the vulgar herd, these classes, during the last eight or ten centuries, have been continually intermarrying with each other. They seem to have entertained the belief, although constantly contradicted by facts, that the virtues, like the features and fortunes of parents, descend, as an inheritance, upon their offspring. Nay, it has been supposed that blood, like wine, improves by age, and that nobility, like a river, is increased rather than diminished by its distance from the fountain head. Even the light of the nineteenth century has failed to dispel the illusion. The greater portion of society still believe that a man is to be honored for the purity of his blood rather than the purity of his heart, and that length of lineage will atone for any deficiency in longitude of head.

But what in reality has been the result of these efforts to confine the stream of life? A survey of the facts will show that the purer the blood becomes, the nearer it approximates to water, and that persons who can look up to the loftiest and remotest parentage, are usually gifted with the lightest minds.

In royal families where the marriages have always been most exclusive, and, consequently, the ancestral virtues ought to be most concentrated, it has happened, within the last century, that there have been five kings, who have had no brains where either virtues or anything else, that depended upon wits, could be lodged. Nor is this a new developement. History will prove that it has always been impossible to render royal power, for a long time, hereditary. Scarcely a kingdom has existed on earth in which the same family have occupied the throne for more than four or five generations. By that time it has either run out, or its survivors have become so disposed to run that a usurper—usually an illegitimate child, or one sprung from the lowest ranks—finds little difficulty in putting them to flight.

The case of the aristocracy is not much better. Among the upper classes of Europe at the present day, there are more brainless heads and craven hearts, more human forms that are unworthy to bear the title of man, than it is possible to find in the lowest grades of the social scale. What have they done, and what are they doing in the great cause of human

progress? The inventors of engines, and looms, and telegraphs; the bold voyagers,

"That help to wind the silken chain
Of commerce round the world;"

the men who "have made two blades of grass grow where there was but one before," have never born their names. The Luthers, and Cromwells, and Nelsons, and Buonapartes, of history, heroes that have moulded the destinies of the world, have never sprung from their ranks. The Galileoes, Keplers, and Newtons of science; the Bacons and Lockes of philosophy; the Burkes and Sheridans in eloquence; the Miltons, and Spensers, and Shakspeares, in song—those glorious names that will live, when all the titles that man can give shall die—can lay no claim to a drop of their blood. Surely the principle of exclusive marriage, that shuts out all hope of such children as these, is hardly compensated by the watery tide that winds through an invalid's heart, or the empty title that is attached to an idiot's brain.

From the consideration of these historical facts, two important thoughts suggest themselves:

The first has reference to the future of Texas. This State exhibits, in a higher degree than has ever been seen before, that promiscuous assemblage of elements from which have sprung the mightiest nations of the earth. In the earlier part of her history the original Spanish stock, by no means select, either in its birth or its growth, was engrafted upon by scions from every State of the Union. Since the destinies of Texas have been linked with those of her sister republic, the tide of immigration has never ceased to pour into her midst, from all parts of the New World, and from every quarter of the Old, have come, not the rich and the noble born, but the poor, the oppressed, and the vagabond; the same classes that, in an elder day, laid the foundations of "Eternal Rome." Does it need the gift of prophecy to foretel that a mighty people will spring up from a seed like this? Was there ever a better instance of the manifest destiny? Will Texas be the only exception to a rule which all history has confirmed? No; in spite of all discouragements, such a State is bound to "arise and shine." The very fact that her soil has been the refuge of robbers, cheats, cut-throats, and rascals of every dye, which is now so often pointed out as her shame, will ultimately prove to be the very foundation upon which her strength is laid. Even now the legitimate result has begun. The clash and confusion of jarring elements has ceased. The supremacy of law is asserted. The sound of "the church-going bell" is

heard. The school-house and college are building. The school-master is at home. The spirit of energy and enterprise is awakened. The genius of progress is at work. The question of internal improvements is agitated. Her resources of every kind are developing. Soon across her broad prairies will stretch the iron band which is to unite the Atlantic and Pacific shores.

In the second place, this subject suggests the true policy of our country in regard to foreign immigration. We are far from believing that the foreigner, the moment he steps upon American shores, should be allowed to participate in American government. We can but think, however, that all party organizations, so far as they tend to check the tide of immigration, and engender hostility to "the stranger in our midst," are as wrong in political policy, as they are in Christian spirit. If the physiologic principle we have endeavored to establish is correct, it follows that America pre-eminently owes its growth and prosperity to the amalgamation of foreign blood. To cut off, therefore, or to discourage its influx, will be to check the current from which our very life is drawn. The better course is evidently to welcome and provide for this tide of immigration, rather than to oppose and turn it away; to cherish the good influences it brings, and regulate the bad, rather than to trample them both under foot. What, though the population which is annually cast upon American shores is all of the filthiest and most degraded kind! The farmer might as well complain of the black and reeking soil into which his seed is dropped, as the statesman of such materials as these. The waving field of wheat and the harvest of golden corn will not more surely spring up from the dark and dirty earth, than men of patriotism and enterprise and intellect will grow from these despised and benighted masses of human life.

Let us, then, cast aside all foolish prejudices, and acknowledge, in practice as well as theory, that whatever his name or nation may be, "a man's a man for a' that." Let us remember that in our land there is no noble blood but that which has felt the pulses of a noble heart, and no sounding titles nor pageant honors but those which the strong arm and the vigorous intellect, from whatever rank they may be raised, are able to grasp.

Let us welcome the houseless and the naked of every land to American shores; in the boundless forests of the north and the south there is room to make a home for them all. Let us invite the ill-fed and the starving of every grade to partake of

American abundance; on the fertile fields of the west there grows corn enough to feed them all. Let us urge the oppressed and the down trodden of every name to the blessings of American freedom; the Star Spangled Banner is broad enough to cover, and the eagle that sits over it is strong enough to defend them all. L.

TEXAS AND THE TOPOGRAPHY OF THE RIO GRANDE.—NO. 1.

The paper read before the Geographical Society of New York by Lieutenant Viele was very interesting. Probably no one portion of our Union, he began, presents so many interesting features, or a wider field for physical research, than that embraced within the limits of Texas, containing, as it does, in marked and wide-spread developments, the three great leaves upon which nature has recorded the history of the material world. No less extensive is the field which her history offers to the contemplation of the political economist.

The earliest records of Texas are gleaned from those remarkable men, half priest, half soldier, who, after aiding in the subjugation of the Aztecs, spread themselves, almost single-handed, over a vast extent of country, uninhabited save by numerous tribes of savages, whose very existence was unknown to each other. Led on by visions more brilliant than those of Cortez, fired equally by religious zeal and ambition, these modern crusaders, braving danger with more than military ardor and meeting death with the martyr's enthusiasm, with their numbers diminished, and still decreasing, pressed on and on until they penetrated into the heart of the continent, where for centuries the wild idolater has offered sacrifices on the altar of an unknown God.

Descending the water courses of the Gulf of Mexico, they sought, with the cross in one hand and the sword in the other, to colonize the nomadic tribes that roamed over the wild prairies of Texas. These efforts were time and again frustrated, and the daring adventurers paid to their enterprise the forfeit of their lives. Success seemed at length to crown their efforts, and a number of flourishing missions were eventually established in the valley of the upper Rio Grande, the remains of which still exist, and form the nucleus of several considerable towns. These little communities were left for many years undisturbed; but, while reposing in fancied security, an unseen storm was gathering around them. The wily savages of the plains, true to the instincts of their untamable and rapacious nature, swept down upon the settlements, and ruthlessly

murdered all they could find. The missions were for a time completely broken up.

While the Spaniards were pushing their semi-religious colonies into the interior from Mexico, the French, with similar intent, were following the St. Lawrence to the lakes and the lakes to the Mississippi, which was discovered by Father Marquette, in 1675, and seven years after, the French trader, La Salle, explored it to its mouth.

Returning to France, La Salle organized an expedition to enter the Mississippi by sea. He was wrecked, however, on the coast of Texas, in 1685, (having missed his course,) near Galveston bay, where he built a fort, in which he left the priests who accompanied him, and perished himself in an attempt to reach the mouth of the Mississippi. The fort was shortly afterwards attacked by the Quaquois, and all the inhabitants murdered. The Spaniards were alarmed at this attempt of the French to establish themselves in Texas, and an expedition was equipped to drive them away, but, on arriving at the present site of Galveston, they found nothing but a ruined fort.

In 1714 the alarm was again given to the Spaniards, by the arrival of an adventurous Canadian, who had crossed through Texas to open commercial relations with Mexico. As the surest means to prevent such encroachments, it was determined to establish missions; and at this time were built the missions of San Antonio, San Felipe, San Jose, Goliad and Refugio, the ruins of which still exist, some of which are used as government stables, while the others are left unoccupied, save by the owl and bat.

Civilization was now secured in Texas. Towards the close of the eighteenth century the Anglo-Saxon pioneers began to find their way to these little colonies; they were soon followed by others, and, in 1822, their numbers having been largely augmented by the remnant of the notorious expedition organized by Aaron Burr, a revolution was fomented against the arbitrary government of Spain, which was soon suppressed.

In 1821, Moses Austin, an American, from Connecticut, got permission from the Spanish authorities to establish a colony in Texas, and got a large tract of land on condition that, within a given time, he should establish on it a certain number of families. Shortly after this Texas revolted against Spain, and from that time to the present the history of that country is one continued series of revolutions and counter revolutions; every page of her annals is disfigured with the

blood of men who at one time or another possessed the confidence of the people.

The names of Davy Crockett and Bowie, whose chivalrous deeds and desperate daring have, even now, the semblance of fabled story, are engraven on the stones of the Alamo, which will ever be regarded by the Texans as a new Thermopylæ.

The independence of Texas was acknowledged by the United States on the 3d of March, 1837, by France in 1839, and in 1841 by England. In 1844 its annexation to the Union was accomplished. Hazardous as was the experiment, the sequel has proved that this political exotic, transplanted from the enervating and sickly soil of Mexico, has, under the genial influence of our institutions, grown into a hardy and vigorous plant.

The geographical position of Texas was then defined as lying between the parallels of $25^{\circ} 25'$ and $36^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, and $53^{\circ} 20'$ and 107° longitude west of Greenwich. In extent it is 600 miles from east to west, and 400 miles from north to south, containing 227,321 square miles, or an area as large as Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia, combined. It contains a population of 300,000, exclusive of Indians, the greater portion of which is from Tennessee, next in order from Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi, Kentucky, and North Carolina. Of foreigners the great majority are Germans. Texas, he stated, contains largely developed the three great geographical formations—the primary, secondary, and tertiary.

Great facilities were offered for the construction of the great Pacific railroad, from the gradual elevation of the land.

The most remarkable feature of the State is the extraordinary number and extent of the rivers, having a total length exceeding 10,000 miles, which traverse the State, the navigation of which has been prevented by the wild and extensive growth of forest trees along their banks, which, falling into the bed of the stream, form extensive rafts. Among them he enumerated the Red river, the Sabine, which forms the boundary between Texas and Louisiana; the Trinity river, which is navigable at high water 600 and at low water 100 miles; the Brazos, the Colorado, about twenty miles from the mouth of which lies a raft, the work of centuries, seven miles in length, three miles of which is a solid bed of logs from ten to twenty feet in depth, which prevents navigation. The Guadalupe, San Antonio, and Pass Caselo, come next in rank. The Rio Grande, or, as it is called by the Mexicans, the "Rio

Bravo del Norte," rises in the Sierra mountains, is about 2,000 miles in length, and navigable for steam 500 miles. The valley of the Rio Grande, where it passes through New Mexico, is remarkably fertile; as it descends, however, the river becomes enclosed in the mountains, and the valley narrows into a chasm. A series of rapids are here formed, and not until it nears the Presidio does it become a navigable stream. From this point to the mouth it might be made navigable (by the removal of a few obstructions) at all seasons of the year for steamships. Yet, in comparison with the show it makes on the map, the Rio Grande is an insignificant stream. Evaporation goes so rapidly on that it is very little wider at its mouth than it is at Santa Fé, one thousand miles up. There is now a regular line of steamboats from the mouth to Rio Grande city. That part of this river between parallels of 26 and 29, together with the country adjacent, formed the more immediate subject of the lecture. A marked difference exists between this region and the other portions of Texas, from the total absence of the smaller streams. This renders it very sterile. Its barrenness being increased by the action of water having denuded the hills of the surface soil, leaving bare the limestone formation.

For the purpose of description, he commenced at Brazos Santiago, which is a harbor very difficult of access, the sunken wrecks being the only guides by which the pilot steers his course. Brazos island lies between the entrance of the harbor and the mouth of the river. Brownsville is the first American town on the river. Between it and Point Isabel lie the far-famed battle-fields of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma. Brownsville is opposite the Mexican city of Matamoros.

Rio Grande city is the next town of importance on the east bank of the river. It was founded in 1848, and is now quite a settlement. It contains several good buildings and stores, facing a plaza, where a market is daily held in the open air. It is contiguous to the military post of Ringgold barracks. It has no church, though nowhere could one be more appreciated. Here, as at Brownsville, a few men of intelligence give a more elevated tone to the place. This is a great filibustering rendezvous. Among these reckless men can be found more true-souled honesty and genuine generosity than many would be led to suppose. Many a dare-devil Texan would scorn the paltry meanness and fire at the acts of fraud perpetrated by friend on friend, which are not of unfrequent occurrence in our civilized metropolis. The lecturer noticed the towns of Roma, Laredo, and others, up to Eagle Pass, in

the vicinity of Fort Duncan, where "Wild Cat," the celebrated Seminole chief, has taken up his residence. The Mexican peasant of the Rio Grande is a character peculiar to that region of country, possessing within itself all the elements of a social existence. He is his own shoemaker and tailor. The leather of his garments and of his sandals are made from the skin of the animals he has himself killed. He makes his own carts, hewing the wheels out of the solid wood. The corn he puts into the ground is left to Providence either to ripen or dry up, of which there is an even chance. After planting his corn he starts out unto the prairie to lasso wild horses and cattle, and if he escapes the Comanches, he generally brings home a supply of stock for the ensuing year. These peasants are, naturally, a good and innocent race, although at present their ideas of morality are rather in a confused state. Frequently five generations are to be seen in one house, all living in peace and unity.

The Americans, on the Rio Grande may be considered the most daring, adventurous set of men in the world. Actuated solely by the reckless spirit of adventure, and a reckless love of the new and exciting, many of their lives present scenes of peril which none could encounter unless possessed of iron nerve, and which have left upon their souls the impression of a new nature. The feeling of sympathy in misfortunes pervades all classes of Mexicans. So universal is this sentiment that the bitterest enemy in the hour of trouble will receive care and attention. The well-known devotion of the Mexican women to the sick and wounded of our army during the Mexican war finds no parallel in history.

The Indian tribes of Texas are the Comanches, the Lipans, the Wacoes, the Tawacamies, the Tonakawas and the Caddoes. The Comanches are by far the most numerous. They now number between six thousand and ten thousand, but are, however, gradually diminishing. The Lipans are next in number; the rest are but remnants of tribes.

A description of the harbors was graphically given.

In describing the character of the inhabitants he distinguished them as Indian, Mexican and Anglo-Saxon. The lazy Mexicans, he said, lying in the sun with their naked children, give anything but a brisk or business-like air to the place. In the Texan is combined the raciness of the Kentuckian, the Creole impetuosity of the Louisianian and the reckless heart-and-hand spirit of the south-west. They follow different callings, from the scout to the judge; but there exists no false distinction among them—a man stands on his own merits.

The word *blazé*, or the idea conveyed by it, is not known their hearts beat true to the call of friendship. Respect for women seems an innate principal. Besides the regular Texans are a class of vagrant Americans who give a bad name to Texas.

The history of each, he concluded, differs from the other, yet through the character of all three runs a tinge of romance and chivalry which excites our admiration. In this wild region deeds are sometimes done which makes the blood run cold to read of—yet the vast extent of the country should be borne in mind, and the character of the State should not be judged from the isolated acts of a roving population. Texas stands among the slaveholding States unrivalled in cultivation and production, in energy and enterprise, in intelligence and morality. It is only in the light of history that its annexation can be fully comprehended, coupled as it is with the Mexican war and the discovery of gold in California. It is only in the light of history that we shall be able to read the now silent workings of a new and peculiar phase of civilization. Yet of this there is no doubt that were the rest of the Union to pass from existence, there would be left within the limits of Texas the elements of a magnificent empire.

BEAUTIES OF NEGRO RULE.

THE PRESENT AND PAST OF HAYTI.

After the thorough discussion of negro freedom and its fruits on the British West Indies, given in our last issues, by D. G. McCord, of South Carolina, a slight glance at another chapter of the subject will come in not inappropriately. Let those whose minds may be occupied with Cuba Africanization give a few moments to these facts and figures.

“PORT-AU-PRINCE, January 20.—If one would criticise on the question of the negro emancipation after our (Haytien) circumstances, the result would be a rather comfortless one for a philanthropist, to whom veracity would yet be of more value than the triumph of his humane efforts. This country has made since its liberation no progress whatever. The population partially lives upon the produce of the grown-wild coffee plantations, the remainers of the French dominion. Properly speaking, plantations, after the model of the English, in Jamaica, or the Spanish, in Cuba, do not exist here. Hayti is the most beautiful and the most fertile of the Antilles. It has more mountains than Cuba, and more space than Jamaica. Nowhere the coffee tree could better thrive than here, as it especially likes a mountainous soil. But the indolence of the negroes has brought the formerly so splendid plantations to

decay. They now gather the coffee only from the *grown-wild* trees. The cultivation of the sugar cane has *entirely disappeared*, and the island that once supplied one-half of Europe with sugar, receives now its own wants from Jamaica and the United States. To the banana tree and the half-wild hogs owes the 'free negro' almost alone that he by his laziness has not yet died of starvation on this truly paradisaical island. The impoverishment increases visibly since Emperor Soulouque holds the imperial sceptre in his hands. It appears especially from the enormous depreciation of the paper money and the entire disappearance of coins, as well as from the exterior appearance of all cities, villages, and inhabitants of this island. Since the black ruler has monopolized one-fifth of the whole coffee produce for his imperial use, and since the price of coffee in the interior part has been so much depressed by patented commissioners who have the sole right to buy the same, the farmer hardly finds his trouble rewarded if he only gathers it from the tree. By the hereby daily increasing indolence the negro will soon consider his shirt and pants as an unnecessary *lusus* article, and adopt the cheaper fashion of his African ancestors on the Niger. Industry is wholly wanting. Hayti imports all manufactured articles from Europe and the United States, and has, besides the coffee and dye-wood, nothing to export. Even the beautiful mahogany wood comes from the republican part of the island—from the Dominican republic. As, at the time of the London world's exhibition, the government of Hayti was requested to transmit also some contribution, nothing could be found worthy of that demand but the golden crown of Soulouque, *which has been made in Paris!* The few new houses built in the capital, Port-au-Prince, since the overthrow of the French colonial government, belong almost exclusively to foreign merchants, who, of course, as 'whites,' enjoy no citizens' rights. Besides these few elegant houses, the cannon-balls of the French men-of-war would have found last summer very little destructible matter, even if the French commandant had carried into effect his menace to bombard the city, as all the rest is either nothing but rubbish and ruins, or built of such a cheap material, that, in all probability, the destroying material (the cannon-balls) would have been more precious than that to be destroyed. Under such circumstances, it would have been an easy matter for Soulouque to set at defiance every threat, if he had not feared a blockade more than a bombardment; for there is always such a small quantity of goods on hand, and the Haytien industry is so impotent, that, if a blockade should only continue during

one year, the whole imperial army, the nobility, and even the court itself, would be reduced to the primitive costume of their black congeneric relations in Sudan. Hotels exist in this interesting capital not at all, and the foreigner who, not like the black farmer from the country, dotes on lying on the foot-deep rubbish in the streets, is placed in the greatest embarrassment.

The exportations from Hayti, amounted in—

	Sugar—pounds.	
	Raw.	White.
1789, French colonial government.....	93,573,300	47,516,531
1801, under Toussaint Louverture.....	8,016,540	18,517,381
1819, government of Henry Christoph.....	1,200,000	
1824, under President Boyer.....	2,500,000	
1828.....do.....	36,332	
1829.....do.....	40,470	
1850. Has ceased entirely to be an article of export.		
	Coffee—lbs.	
1789, under the French colonial government.....	76,835,219	
1801, under Toussaint Louverture.....	29,510,450	
1819, under Henry Christoph.....	15,500,000	
1824, under President Boyer.....	30,000,000	
1828.....do.....	8,369,299	
1829.....do.....	5,995,811	
1848.....do.....	80,608,343	
	Cotton—lbs.	
1789, under the French regime.....	76,835,219	
1801, under Toussaint Louverture.....	2,170,440	
1819, under Henry Christoph.....	2,000,000	
1824, under President Boyer.....	3,500,000	
1828.....do.....	500,000	
1829.....do.....	300,000	
1849.....do.....	664,516	

Indigo, of which, in 1789, 7,004,278 pounds were exported; and tobacco, (since 1847,) have also ceased to be cultivated.

Comparison in francs.

Total exportations from Hayti in 1789.....	205,360,007
do.....do.....1801.....	64,768,179
Diminution.....	140,591,888
Total exportations from Hayti in 1801.....	64,768,179
do.....do.....1824.....	22,410,000
Diminution.....	42,358,179
Total exportations from Hayti in 1829.....	3,639,840

Therefore the exportation has, in the period of 1789-1829, decreased from 520 millions to 3½ millions!!

NOTE.—BOOK NOTICES, ETC., ETC.—The incompleteness of notices of the following new books received this month prevents their appearance in this number, but they will appear at length in our next: From Lippincott, Grambo & Co., *Wailes' Agriculture and Geology of Mississippi*. From Harper & Bros., *Literary and Historical Miscellanies*, Baneroff, *Travels in the Chinese Empire*, *History for Boys*. From D. Appleton & Co., *Chemistry of Common Life*, *The Summer Land*, Grace Lee, Kenneth, *My Brother's Keeper*. The *New Pastoral*, from Parry & McMillan. The *Hireling and Slave*, from Jno. Russell. *America*, by Jas. Robertson, *Westminster Review* for April, through Messrs. Frank Taylor, Farnham, and Taylor & Maury. The continued indisposition of the Editor will be a sufficient apology for any deficiencies which may appear in this number.

AGRICULTURAL AND HORTICULTURAL JOURNAL

MANAGEMENT OF SLAVES.

The following, by Mr. John A. Calhoun, of Alabama, prepared in the form of a report, and as chairman of a committee charged with the subject, will be valuable to most of our southern readers. They will find in previous volumes of the Review other interesting papers upon the same subject:

If it is a matter which pertains to the interest of northern agricultural societies to attend well to the improvement of their lands, and the improvement and comfort of their stock, providing for the best means of cultivating their lands, &c., how much more important is it for us to turn our attention to the best means of governing our slaves, and of promoting their happiness, and consequently their usefulness to us. It does appear to your committee that no argument can be required to establish the propriety of this question. Every reasonable person must at once perceive the irresistible conclusion, that there is no good reason why this subject has been so long neglected, and that it is time we should commence to attend to it. It certainly cannot be that we are afraid to open this subject to the inspection of the world, for your committee are well persuaded that the condition of our slaves will bear a favorable contrast with that of any other laboring population in the world, so far as comfort and happiness is concerned, and will not fall below them in any other point of view than that of mere abstract notions of human rights, about which, it is true, there has been much nonsensical prating in this as well as in other countries. But whether we are willing to open this subject to the world or not, the eye of the world is on us, and the imagination has formed a picture upon this subject, even in our own country, which, when compared with the truth, is as the midnight darkness in contrast with the light of noonday. Such is the hideous deformity of the picture, that we who are accustomed to the daily inspection of the original cannot recognise the picture from the original. Your committee do not by any means contend that all the picture of slavery is one of light, and this they would correct, but they do insist that, in comparison with other forms of servitude, it will bear a favora-

ble contrast. In fact, they challenge the world to produce a laboring population more happy, better fed or cared for than our slaves. Let us, therefore, be bold, and meet the fanaticism of the day by a fearless exposure of facts. Wherever we are wrong, let us correct our errors, and in what we are right, defend ourselves.

Your committee apprehend that there can be no difference of opinion in this society as to the moral obligation of the master to attend to the comfort and happiness of his slaves, nor do we conceive that there will be any difference of opinion as to the obligation of the master to promote the moral and religious character of his slaves. It is the interest as well as the duty of masters to do this. Indeed, our laws require us to attend to the comfort and happiness of our slaves; and our missionary establishment, with its ample support by us, shows that we acknowledge the obligation on us to promote the well-being of our slaves. But even more—actual statistical returns show that religion is more prevalent among the slaves of the south than the free blacks of the northern States, and universal opinion concurs in giving them a higher moral character. It is true that in non-slaveholding States the blacks are free in theory, but in practice their freedom often leads to misery and degradation, and not unfrequently to oppression from his white associate. Whilst the slave is in theory in the closest bands, in practice he has a friend and protector in his master, who, from interest, humanity, and religion, is bound to protect him and promote his happiness. Thus it will be perceived that, whilst in theory the southern slave is the most abject and degraded, and the northern laborer and freed man the most free and happy, yet in practice the scale may be, and, in the opinion of your committee, often is, turned in favor of the slave. With the southern master every motive which can influence a correctly constituted mind—interest, humanity, and religion—leads to kindness towards our slaves, and it is only the brutal and unreasonable portion of mankind who cannot be influenced by these means. For this class our laws are made, and will compel them to do that for which no compulsion ought to be required. Of all the motives which influence the intercourse between men, *interest* is certainly the strongest; this the employer of the hireling lacks to a great extent to induce him to treat his hireling kindly. The interest of the master in connexion with the hireling is to obtain as much labor from him as possible at the smallest cost, and when he becomes too old or decrepit, from disease or over labor, to work, to get rid of him as soon as possible; whilst the owner of the slave, as the

slave is his property, and he is bound for his support under all circumstances, we can readily conceive how strongly the motive of the master in taking good care of the slave, and thus extending the time of his usefulness. Your committee, therefore, feel well warranted in adding that the master who could disregard all those motives for good treatment of his slaves must be brutal indeed, and must be so obtuse in his intellect as to act against the plainest principle of reason. For such cases your committee invoke the rigid enforcement of the laws, and the expression of a strong condemnation by public sentiment. Your committee take pleasure in saying that, although there are instances in this as well as in other communities in which the considerations referred to have not been sufficient to restrain masters from cruelty to slaves, yet these instances constitute exceptions to the general rule, and they are of opinion that there is a gradual improvement going on in this matter. We recommend, however, that this subject be kept before the community, in order to convince all that interest, humanity, and religion, alike demand kindness to slaves, and that the law frowns on those who treat their slaves inhumanly.

There is one class of our community to whom all the motives referred to, to induce us to kindness to our slaves, do not apply. Your committee refer to our overseers. As they have no property in our slaves, of course they lack the check of self-interest. As their only aim in general is the mere crop results of the year, we can readily conceive the strong inducement they have to over-work our slaves, and here masters are often much to blame for inadvertently encouraging this feeling in their overseers. It is too commonly the case that masters look only to the yearly products of their farms, and praise or condemn their overseers by this standard alone, without ever once troubling themselves to inquire into the manner in which things are managed on their plantations, and whether he may have lost more in the diminished value of his slaves by over-work than he has gained by his large crop. It is a well-established fact, that over-work produces premature old age, bodily deformity, and debility of constitution, and checks the increase of females. The master, therefore, who has to support his prematurely old, deformed, and debilitated slaves, may well question the beneficial results of his large crops, especially when his only increase of slaves is by purchases at high prices. Your committee take pleasure in referring to the fact that those planters who are most successful in the acquisition of wealth are generally those who "make haste slow," and who will not "kill the goose to obtain the golden egg." We

are, therefore, of opinion that if masters would lay less stress on the mere crop results of the plantation, and place more stress on the proper treatment of their slaves, and the systematic management of their plantations, it would correct the evil referred to. Our overseers ought to have no interest beyond that of pleasing his employers; and nothing but the most inhuman feeling on his part could induce him to treat the slaves cruelly, in opposition to the known wish of his employer. Let the master recollect, too, that he cannot relieve himself from the odium of cruel treatment to his slaves by attempting to throw the odium on his overseer. It is his *duty* to know how his slaves are treated, and to protect them against cruelty.

From the attachment which exists between the master and slave, your committee are of opinion that an appeal to their better feelings would be sufficient in most cases to control them. They are aware, however, that this rule must have a limit, and that the law of force must have some share in the government of the negro as well as the white man. In those countries where what is called *voluntary* servitude exists, the force then is necessity. When the laborer is dependent upon his daily income for the support of himself and family; and when the loss of wages, as is often the case, involves the starvation of his wife and children, certainly no greater force can be applied to him than the threat of turning him off to seek his bread, without a character, or probably with a blackened one. In the management of our slaves, this cannot be, as the master is bound for their support. The master must resort to other means of control. After reason and persuasion have been exhausted without producing the desired effect, punishment of some sort must be resorted to. But this should never be carried to a greater extent than is absolutely necessary to enforce obedience to necessary commands. When this mode of discipline is adopted, your committee do not hesitate to say, that with prudent management, prosperity on the part of the master, and happiness on the part of the slave, is the inevitable consequence. No more beautiful picture of human society can be drawn than a well organized plantation, thus governed by the humane principles of reason. When the negroes are well fed, well clothed, and have not unreasonable burthens imposed on them, but are accustomed to a systematic and regular course of labor, especially if the slaves have been born and reared up in the master's household, or have long been members of his family, and hence have that strong attachment which never fails to grow up between the master and

his slave in the course of time, the picture never fails to remind one of the patriarchal days when *Abraham had slaves born in his house or purchased with his money*. Under such a state of things the master knows the man; the man, his master. The master feels confident that the man is attached to him, and will consult his interest. The man feels confident that the master will only require what is right of him, and will abundantly provide for all his wants and that of his family. When he or his children are sick, he knows that he will have his master's physician to minister to him. When he is naked, he knows he will be clothed; and when he is old, he knows that his wants will all be supplied to him in his small cottage; during winter he will be warmed by his master's fire, and clothed from his master's flock; and at all times he knows that he will be fed from his master's crib and meat house. The man looks even beyond death, and knows that when he shall have died he will be decently buried, and his children after him provided for. When sickness and affliction happens to such a master, how anxious the solicitude of his slaves for his recovery? And when at last death overtakes the good master, the tears, the sobs, and the cries of his faithful slaves point to him rather as their father than their master. This is no fancy sketch—it is a picture, the original of which we have often admired—and we venture to say, that no more beautiful sight has ever been viewed in the countries of voluntary servitude, however great the boast of its superiority as a system of labor over slavery. Your committee are aware that there are those who doubt the probability of a strong attachment between the master and his slave. But they are satisfied that this position is wrong, and from their experience they *know* that there are numerous cases in the southern States where the picture drawn above is a faithful sketch of actual life.

With respect to the best mode of governing our slaves, your committee think they cannot bring the subject to the view of the planters in a more proper shape, than by recommending to them the following or similar rules in the government of their slaves. Of course, these rules are very general, and may be extended probably with advantage. But your committee, after mature reflection, are of opinion that they embrace all the general principles upon which they propose to base the government of our slaves.

Rule 1st. Never punish a negro when in a passion. No one is capable of properly regulating the punishment for an offence when angry.

2d. Never require of a negro what is unreasonable. But

when you give an order be sure to enforce it with firmness, yet mildly.

3d. Always attempt to govern by reason in the first instance, and resort to force only when reason fails, and then use no more force than is absolutely necessary to procure obedience.

4th. In giving orders, always do it in a mild tone, and try to leave the impression on the mind of the negro that what you say is the result of reflection.

5th. In giving orders, be sure that you are understood, and let the negro always know that he can ask for an explanation if he does not understand you.

6th. When you are under the necessity of punishing a negro, be sure to let him know for what offence he is punished.

7th. Never act in such a way as to leave the impression on the mind of the negro that you take pleasure in his punishment—your manner should indicate that his punishment is painful.

8th. A regular and systematic plan of operation on the plantation is greatly promotive of easy government. Have, therefore, all matters as far as possible reduced to a system.

9th. Negroes lack the motive of self interest to make them careful and diligent, hence the necessity of great patience in the management of them. Do not, therefore, notice too many small omissions of duty.

10th. The maxim of making haste slow in plantation operations, is equally applicable as in ordinary vocations of life. The meaning of which is, not by attempting to do too much, to over-work and consequently injure your hands. Recollect that the journey of life is a long, and at best, a tedious one. The traveller who wishes to make a long and safe trip, always travels in regular and moderate stages. Do not kill the goose to obtain the golden egg.

Let these, or similar rules be generally adopted, and carried out by the southern planter, and your committee do not hesitate to say, that although it may not stop the clamor of wicked men, who seek to make political capital out of the spirit of abolition, yet their clamor will prove as harmless as the *owl's hoot*—even the slaves themselves will not thank them for their efforts, but laugh them to scorn.

The only food on which this fanatical spirit has heretofore been fed, is the instances in which some among us have failed to carry out the humane principles above recommended. Many of which instances have been carefully collected, properly

embellished to suit the taste of old women and children, and published to the world as the legitimate fruits of slavery.

All of which your committee respectfully submit.

JOHN A. CALHOUN,
E. E. DuBOISE,
VIRGIL BUBO,

JUNE 13, 1846.

Committee.

THE SOIL WE CULTIVATE.

BY J. F. JOHNSON, AUTHOR OF AGRICULTURAL CHEMISTRY AND GEOLOGY.

Although, therefore, the first use of the soil in reference to the general vegetation of the globe is to afford to plants a firm anchorage, so to speak, for their roots—and although the growth of many useful plants seems at first sight to be dependent on the rude and general question only, as to whether the soil they occupy be a sand, a clay, or a calcareous marl—yet a minute chemical examination shows that their usefulness to plants is in reality dependent upon the presence of a large number of chemical substances, both of mineral and of organic origin. If these are present, any plants will grow upon them that are suited to their mechanical texture and to the climate of the place. If they are absent, whatever be the texture of the soil, and whatever the climate, the plant will languish and die. And the whole art of manuring consists in adding to the soil those things in which it is deficient—at the right time, in a proper chemical condition, and in the requisite proportions. What services, chemical and physiological, the several constituents of the fertile soil really render to the plant that grows upon it, will appear in the succeeding chapter.

But suppose all the necessary chemical adjustments to be made—the composition of the soil, that is, to be such as is usually attendant upon fertility—physical conditions and agencies often intervene to falsify the predictions of chemistry. Thus, the fall of rain may be too small to keep the land in that condition of moisture which is required for the growth of plants. Hence the wide and naked deserts which extend over the rainless regions of the earth's surface. Whatever be the chemical composition of the soil in these regions, vegetation is impossible, and the labor of man, except he bring in water, almost in vain. Or the surface of a country may be so flat that the rains which descend upon it can find no outlet. They stagnate, therefore, and render it unpropitious to the cultivator, so that fertility cannot show itself, whatever the soil may contain, unless an easy escape for the superfluous water be first

provided. Or the rains may fall unseasonably, as they do in Iceland, where they appear in the autumn, when the barley should be ripening, in far too copious showers to permit even this hardiest of grain crops to be cultivated with profit in the island.

So the thermal conditions of a region may interfere with its fertility. Abstract chemistry says, "let the soil contain the necessary constituents, and any crop will grow upon it." But physiology modifies this broad statement, by showing, *first*, that whatever be the chemical composition of the soil, it must possess a certain physical texture before this or that plant will grow well upon it. That which naturally affects a clay soil will not grow well upon a sand; so one which delights in a blowing sand will languish in a moorish peat, however rich in chemical ingredients it may be. And, *second*, that the temperature or warmth of a place determines equally whether its naturally rich soils shall grow this crop or that. Upon the combined influences, in fact, of moisture and warmth, which make-up what we call climate, depend in a great degree the varied floras and cultivated crops of the different regions of the globe. Thousands of plants, which beneath the tropics produce abundantly, will in the same soil scarcely expand a flower when placed beneath an arctic sky.

However important, therefore, the geological origin of a soil and its chemical composition may be, where climate is favorable, neither are able to effect anything in the way of raising food for man, where a duly attempered moisture and warmth are wanting.

But man also exercises an influence on the soil, which is worthy of attentive study. He lands in a new country, and fertility everywhere surrounds him. The herbage waves thick and high, and the massive trees raise their proud stems loftily towards the sky. He clears a farm from the wilderness, and ample returns of corn pay him yearly for his simple labors. He ploughs, he sows, he reaps, and from her seemingly exhaustless bosom the earth gives back abundant harvests. But at length a change appears, creeping slowly over and gradually dimming the smiling landscape. The corn is first less beautiful, then less abundant, and at last it appears to die altogether beneath the resistless scourge of an unknown insect, or a parasitic fungus.* He forsakes, therefore, his long cultivated farm,

* In New England and the British Provinces of North America the wheat is overwhelmed by the *fly*; in New Jersey and Maryland, the wide peach-orchards by the *borer*, and a mysterious disease called the *yellow*s; and in Alabama the cotton plant by the *rust*.

and hews out another from the native forest. But the same early plenty is followed by the same vexatious disasters. His neighbors partake of the same experience. They advance like a devouring tide against the verdant woods. They trample them beneath their advancing culture. The axe levels its yearly prey, and generation after generation proceeds in the same direction—a wall of green forests on the horizon before them, a half desert and naked region behind.

Such is the history of colonial culture in our own epoch; such is the vegetable history of the march of European cultivation over the entire continent of America. From the shores of the Atlantic, the unrifed soil retreated first to the Alleghanies and the shores of the great lakes. These are now overpast, and the reckless plunderer, axe in hand, scarcely retarded by the rich banks of the Mississippi and its tributary waters, is hewing his way forward to the Rocky Mountains and the eastern slopes of the Andes. No matter what the geological origin of the soil may be, or what its chemical composition; no matter how warmth and moisture may favor it, or what the staple crop it has patiently yielded from year to year, the same inevitable fate overtakes it. The influence of long-continued human action overcomes the tendencies of all natural causes.

I need scarcely refer, as special examples of this fact to the tracts of abandoned land which are still to be seen along the Atlantic borders of Virginia and the Carolinas. It is more interesting to us to look at those parts of America which lie farther towards the north, and which, in modes of culture and kinds of produce, more nearly resemble our own.

The flat lands which skirt the lower St. Lawrence, and which near Montreal stretch into wide plains, were celebrated as the granary of America in the times of the French dominion. Fertile in wheat, they yielded for many years a large surplus for exportation; now they grow less of this grain than is required for the consumption of their own population. The oat and the potato have taken the place of wheat as the staples of Lower Canada culture, and as the daily sustenance of those who live on the produce of their own farms.

So, in New England, cultivation of wheat has gradually become unprofitable. The tiller of the worn-out soils of this part of the United States cannot compete with the cultivator of the fresh land yearly won by the axe and the plough from the western wilderness, and he is fain to betake himself to the raising of other crops. The peculiarly wheat-producing zone is yearly shifting itself more completely towards the west. This has long been evident to the careful observer, and to the

collector of statistical data. I brought it distinctly before the public in my work on North America.* And a striking proof of the correctness of my views is afforded by the subsequent returns of the United States census of 1850. From these it appears that, while the produce of wheat in the New England States in 1840 amounted to 2,014,000 bushels, it was reduced in 1850 to 1,078,000 bushels. So rapidly, even now, is the influence of human agency on the natural tendencies of the soil continuing in these countries to manifest itself.

But the influence of man upon the productions of the soil is exhibited also in other and more satisfactory results. The improver takes the place of the exhauster, and follows his footsteps on these same altered lands. Over the sandy, forsaken tracts of Virginia and the Carolinas he spreads large applications of shelly marl, and herbage soon covers it again, and profitable crops. Or he strews on it thinner sowings of gypsum, and as if by magic the yield of previous years is doubled or quadrupled.† Or he gathers the droppings of his cattle and the fermented produce of his barnyard, and lays it upon his fields—when, lo! the wheat comes up luxuriantly again, and the midge, and the rust, and the yellows, all disappear from his wheat, his cotton, and his peach trees!

But the renovator marches much slower than the exhauster. His materials are collected at the expense of both time and money, and barrenness ensues from the easy labors of the one far more rapidly than green herbage can be made to cover it again by the most skillful, zealous, and assiduous labors of the other. But nevertheless, among energetic nations, this second tide follows inevitably upon the first, as they advance in age, in wealth, and in civilization. Though long mismanagement has, in a minor sense, desolated large portions of northeastern America, a new fringe of verdant fields has already begun to follow towards the west, though at a long interval, the fast-retiring green belt of the virgin forests. A race of new cultivators, taught to treat the soil more skilfully, to give their due weight to its geological origin, to its chemical history, to the conditions of climate by which it is affected, and to the reckless usage to which it has so long been subjected—this new race may—*will*, I hope, in time—bring back the whole region to more than its original productiveness. Both the inherited energy of the whole people, and the efforts which State agricul-

* *Notes on North America*, vol i. chap. xiii.

† For examples of both these results, see the *Essay on Calcareous Manures*, by Edward Ruffin, the publication of which in Virginia, in 1832, marks an epoch in the agricultural history of the slave States of North America.

tural societies, and numerous zealous and patriotic individuals in each State are now making, justify us in believing that such a race of instructed men will gradually spread itself over the rural districts in every part of the Union. The previous success of the mother country guarantees a similar successful result in their kindred exertions.

For we have not to go far back in the agricultural history of Great Britain to find a state of things not much different from the present condition of the land in North America. We require to turn aside but a short way from the high-road, in some districts of England, still to find in living operation nearly all the defects and vices of the present American system of farming.* A century and a half has, I may say, changed the whole surface of our island. But what labor has been expended, what wealth buried in the soil, what thought lavished in devising means for its recovery from long-inflicted sterility! Commerce has brought in from all parts of the world new chemical riches, to replace those which a hundred previous generations had permitted rains and rivers to wash out of the soil, or to carry away to the sea. Mechanical skill has given us the means of tilling the surface economically, of bringing up virgin soils from beneath, and of laying dry that which overabundant water had prevented our forefathers from utterly impoverishing; and scientific investigation has taught us how to apply all these new means to the attainment of the desired end.

It may be said, with truth, that Great Britain at this moment presents a striking illustration of the influence of man in increasing the productiveness of the soil. This example guarantees, as I have said, the success of similar operations in the United States of America and in our British colonies; while the now advanced condition, especially of our chemical knowledge, both in regard to the soil which is to be cultivated and to the plants we wish to grow, insures a far more easy and certain advance to the process of restoration in these countries than in past times could take place among ourselves; less waste of time and money in ill-judged experiments, and less cost of labor in all the necessary operations of husbandry.

THOMAS TUSSEER—AGRICULTURE IN RHYME.

Five-and-twenty years after the publication, says Johnson, in his *Farmer's Cyclopaedia*, of the first English work upon agri-

* See, for instance, the state of farming in Lancashire, as described in the *Royal Agricultural Journal*, vol. x. part I.

culture, (*Fitzherbert's Boke of Husbandrye*.) appeared (in 1557) the *One hundred Points of Good Husbandry*, by Thomas Tusser. This celebrated work must be regarded more as a series of poetical good farming and domestic directions and axioms than as a regular treatise upon agriculture. All that is known of the author of this curious production has been collected by Dr. Mayor, in his able edition of Tusser's book, and by my brother, Mr. George W. Johnson, in his *History of English Gardening*; and both these authors have been obliged to content themselves chiefly with Tusser's own account of himself; for Tusser did what few men ever attempt—he wrote his own life, and in a manner still more rare, in verse. His life was full of adventure; for he evidently had all the restlessness of genius, with the unsettled habits too commonly confirmed by continued change of occupation.

He was born about the year 1515, at Rivenhall, a village on the high-road between the towns of Witham and Keldevon, in Essex, of a family allied by marriage to the higher ranks of society.

He was buried in the church of St. Mildred in the Poultry, according to Stowe, with this epitaph:

"Here, Thomas Tusser, clad in earth, doth lie,
That sometime made the Points of Husbandry:
By him then learn thou may'st; here learn we must,
When all is done, we sleep, and turn to dust:
And yet, through Christ, to heaven we hope to go;
Who reads his books, shall find his faith was so."

In whatever capacity he at various times lived he acted with ability, yet never so as to benefit his fortune. That he excelled as a chorister, to which he was originally educated, though strongly against his inclination, is certain; for none but those of more than ordinary powers are admitted into the royal choir. As a courtier he was unfrowned upon till the disgrace of his patron. As a farmer it is evident that he possessed a correct knowledge, from his work upon the subject. The same book testifies that, as an author and a poet, he was far above mediocrity. Fuller, in his *Worthies of Essex*, describes him in his usual quaint manner as "a musician, schoolmaster, serving-man, husbandman, grazier, poet; more skillful in all than thriving in any vocation. He spread," he adds "his bread with all sorts of butter, yet none would stick thereon." The testimony of Fuller to the excellent private character of Tusser, is valuable as coming from one who must have been the cotemporary of many persons who well remembered our author. "I hear," says Fuller, "no man to charge him with any vicious extravagancy or visible carelessness." The true

reason of his ill success in life is to be found, perhaps, in the verses of a poet almost his cotemporary. Peacham, in his *Minerva*, a book of emblems published in 1612, has a device of a whetstone and a scythe, with this beneath:

"They tell me, Tusser, when thou wert alive,
And hadst for profit turned every stone,
Where'er thou camest thou couldst never thrive,
Though hereto best couldst counsel every one;
As it may in thy *Husbandry* appear,
Wherein afresh thou livest among us here.
So, like thyself, a number more are wont
To sharpen others with advice of wit,
When they themselves are like the whetstone blunt."

Tusser's work first appeared in 1557, entitled "*A Hundreth Good Pointes of Husbandrie*:"

"A hundreth good pointes of husbandry
Maintaineth good household, with huswifry.
Housekeeping and husbandry, if it be good,
Must love one another like cousinnes in blood.
The wife, too, must husband as well as the man,
Or farewell thy husbandry do what thou can."

Imprinted at London, in Flete strete, within Temple barre, at the sygne of the hand and starre, by Richard Totell, the third day of February, An. 1557. Cum privilegio ad imprimendum solum."

A copy of this edition, which Dr. Mayor considers to be unique, is in the British Museum. It consists of only 13 quarto leaves.

The *Book of Huswifry*, it is supposed, was at first printed by itself; it was afterwards added to the editions of the *Husbandry*.

Editions of this work appeared in 1561, 1562; and another, "newly corrected and amplified," 1570, 1571, (Watts.) To these succeeded a large edition and several reprints, the last of which is that edited by Dr. W. Mayor, in 1812, 4to and 8vo, with many notes and additions.

To this *Book of Husbandry*, says Weston, is often joined *The Booke of Regarde, containing the Castle of Delight, the Garden of Unthriftiness, the Arbour of Virtue, and the Castle of Repentance*. Another work is ascribed by Haller to the pen of Tusser, viz: *Tractatus de Agricultura Versibus Anglicis*. London, 1638-'72. Both these last mentioned works are extremely rare.

Tusser dedicated his book first to Lord William Paget, in an acrostic, and after his death, to "the Lord Paget, of Beaudesert," his son and heir. From this we find that Tusser shared an author's very common fate, for he tells us—

"By practice and ill speeding,
These lessons had their breeding,
And not by hearsay or reading,
As some abroad have blown;

Who will not thus believe me,
 So much the more they grieve me,
 Because they grudge to give me,
 What is of right mine own."

Its price, when first published, as described in his prefatory address to the reader, was only 4*d.* or 8*d.* He says:

"What is a groat
 Or twin to note,
 Once in the life,
 For man or wife."

The style in which Tusser wrote his book is plain, and sometimes hobbling; but at the same time it is a metre easily remembered; and verse is well adapted to impress upon the memory the mass of useful truths and rural directions contained in the work. In the rhyming preface, "to the buyer of this book," (for Tusser seemed to do everything in verse,) he says:

"What look ye, I pray you shew what?
 Terms pointed with rhetorick fine?
 Good husbandry seeketh not that,
 Nor is't any meaning of mine."

His tenth chapter consists of a series of 63 excellent "Good Husbandry Lessons, worthy to be followed of such as will thrive." He omitted no opportunity to give occasion for such seasonable reflections.

"As bud, by appearing, betok'neth the spring,
 And leaf, by her falling, the contrary thing;
 So youth bids us labour to get as we can,
 For age is a burden to labouring man."

He comments the system of modern corn-rents, and was evidently no enemy to the sports of the field:

"To hunters and hawkers take heed what ye say,
 Mild answer with courtesy, drives them away;
 So where a man's better will open a gap,
 Resist not with rudeness, for fear of mishap."

He begins his monthly husbandry with September, for that was then the period, as now in England, when arable land was commonly entered upon by the farmer. He says, in his opening stanza:

"At Michaelmas lightly, new farmer comes in,
 New husbandry forth him; new to begin;
 Old farmer, still taking, the time to him given,
 Makes August to last untill Michaelmas even."

In furtherance of his object, that of giving some very minute directions to the incoming tenant, he even gives a catalogue of farming implements in verse, in which he manages with some adroitness to include several apparently impracticable names, such as—

"A hand-barrow, wheel-barrow, shovel, and spade,
 A curry-comb, mane-comb, and whip for a jade."

It was the approved practice in Tusser's days to "sow timely thy white wheat, sow rye in the dust." They were used also to put rye-meal into their wheat-flour :

"But sow it not mixed to grow so on land,
Lest rye tarry wheat till it shed as it stand."

Thick and thin sowing had even then their respective advocates :

"Though beans be in sowing ; but scattered in,
Yet wheat, rye, and peason, I love not too thin :
Sow barley and dredge with a plentiful hand,
Lest weed, stead of seed overgroweth thy land."

It is evident that in those days the farmers were not able to grow their grain on many soils where the modern holders find no obstacles. Thus he speaks of the difficulty they found in producing barley in the Parish of Brantham, in Essex, where he farmed some land ; and, again, he tells us, what will surprise the modern skilful Suffolk farmers—

"In Suffolk, again, whereas wheat never grew,
Good husbandry, used, good wheat land I knew."

And he adds :

"As gravel and sand is for rye and not wheat "

He mentions several varieties of wheat then grown by the farmers of the reign of good Queen Bess, such as white and red rivet, white and red pollard, Turkey and gray. But of this last he says :

"Oats, rye, or else barley, and wheat that is grey,
Brings land out of comfort and soon to decay."

The land, however, was evidently farmed with little skill :

"Two crops of a fallow, enricheth the plough,
Though t' one be of pease, it is land good enough :
One crop and a fallow some soil will abide,
Where, if you go further, lay profit aside."

He warns the farmers to beware of cornstealers, and to keep their soil in good heart ; to manure their land with the earth from headlands and old banks ; he commends the use of night-soil for gardens ; and recommends the manure of the farm-yard to be laid up "round on a hill." And he had the wisdom to perceive the advantages of shed-feeding live-stock :

"The housing of cattle, while winter doth hold,
It is good for all such as are feeble and old ;
It saveth much compass and many a sleep,
And spareth the pasture for walk of thy sheep,"

Grazing has, since Tusser's days, been more and more on the decline, as soiling has been better appreciated. A distinguished modern, witty divine, in a letter to a friend, thus zealously denounces the grazing system : "Grazing is an absolute bar-

barism; it is just the same as if you desired your servants to trample and roll over your bread and butter."

For faint cattle he recommends the use of bay-salt; and in his February's husbandry gives some directions for the management of their dung, which betrays a deplorable want of knowledge in its economy:

"Who layeth on dung, ere he layeth on plow,
Such husbandry useth as thrift doth allow:
One month ere ye spread it, so still let it stand,
Ere ever to plow it, ye take it in hand.

Place dung-heap alow, by the furrow along,
Where water, all winter-time did it such wrong:
So make ye the land to be lusty and fat,
And corn thereon sown, to be better for that."

In another place, however, he recommends the farmer to use the mud from ditches and ponds as a dressing for their land.

They harvested their corn, it seems, then, much after the same manner as at the present day. They reaped their wheat and moved their stubbles; and this they carried as we do now, as soon as possible after harvest:

"For fear of destroying with cattle or rain,
The sooner you load it more profit ye gain."

And as to barley, Tussey says—

"The mowing of barley, if barley do stand,
Is cheapest and best, for to rid out of hand:
Some mow it, and rake it, and set it on cocks;
Some mow it, and bind it, and set it on shocks."

They let out, at the period when Tussey wrote, it seems, the harvest-work either by the acre or by the day; of which modes of getting in the corn he seems to prefer the latter:

"By great will deceive thee, with ling'ring it out,
By day will dispatch, and put all out of doubt."

His directions to the farmer with regard to the treatment of his harvest-men and the poor gleaners, and his warm hopes for the farmer's success, betray the excellent benevolent spirit with which he was actuated. He says—

"Corn carried, let such as be poor go and glean,
And after thy cattle, to mouth it up clean;
Then spare it for rowen till Michel be past,
To lengthen thy dairy, no better thou hast.

In harvest-time, harvest-folk, servants and all,
Should make altogether, good cheer in the hall;
And fill out the black bowl of blythe to their song,
And let them be merry all harvest-time long.

Once ended this harvest, let none be beguil'd;
Please such as did help thee—man, woman, and child.
Thus doing, with alway, such help as they can;
Thou winnest the praise of the laboring man.

Now look up to God-ward, let tongue never cease
In thanking of Him for his mighty increase,
Accept my good will, for a proof go and try;
The better thou thriveest the gladder am I."

Having commenced his directions with the outgoing tenant, his last stanza concludes with reference to the incoming:

"New farmer he thinketh each hour a day,
Until the old farmer be packing away."

"Thus endeth and holdeth out
August's Husbandry till
Michaelmas Eve. Tho. Tusser."

The *Book of Husbandry*, of Tusser, is also interesting from the information it gives us with regard to the customs and habits of the farmers of more than two centuries and a half since. It is evident that they then lived very much upon salt fish, for in his directions for the farmer's diet, he mentions for Lent herrings and salt fish; at Easter they had veal and bacon; at Martinmas, beef; before the feast of St. John, mackerel; fresh herrings at Michaelmas; at Hallowtide, sprats and spurlings; for Christmas fare, they seemed to have all the modern standard dishes:

"Good bread and good drink, a good fire in the hall,
Brawn-pudding and souse, and good mustard withal;
Beef, mutton, and pork, shred pies of the best,
Pig, veal, goose, and capon, and turkey well drest."

They evidently, however, lived generally very frugally:

"Where fish is scant, and fruit of trees,
Supply that want with butter and cheese,
Quoth Tusser."

They bought in Tusser's time, such stocks of salt fish as would amaze a modern farmer in these Protestant days, when, by the increase of green winter food, cattle and sheep are kept easily through the winter, and fresh meat is always to be had. Few farmers would now think of undertaking a journey to buy fish; yet he directed the farmer of the sixteenth century:

"When harvest is ended, take shipping or ride,
Ling, salt-fish, and herring for Lent to provide;
Get home that is bought, and go stack it up dry,
With pease-straw between it, the safer to lie."

They had a rude way of measuring time, it seems:

"As huswives are taught, instead of a clock,
How winter nights passeth by crowing of cock."

The care of the garden evidently fell to the wife's share, who had also to see to the feeding of the household. It seems that the laborers had then a great fondness for porridge, for Tusser tells us—

"No spoon-meat, no bellyfull, labourers think."

In other days, too, it is evident that spinning was no mean part of the mistress's avocation, for it is here said—

“ Wife, pluck fro thy seed hemp the fimple hemp clean ;
This looketh more yellow, the other more green.
Use t'one for thy spinning, Michell the t'other,
For shoe-thread and halter, for rope and such other :
Now pluck up thy flax for the maidens to spin.”

Tusser never seems to have forgotten, on any occasion, to recommend to the landholder the payment of his just dues; even the question of tithes, once so obnoxious to the farmer, was not overlooked by him. He advised his farming brethren to

“ To tithe duly and truly, with hearty good will,
That God and his blessing may dwell with thee still ;
Though parson neglecteth his duty for this,
Thank thou thy Lord God, and give ev'ry man his.”

The Points of Huswifry, united to the Comfort of Husbandry, by Thomas Tusser, Gentleman, was, it is concluded, first published with *The Husbandry* in 1561 or 1562. It is written in rather a more lively style than the former, and has an epistle dedicatory, “to the right honorable, and my especiall good lady and mistress, the Lady Paget,” which he thus commences:

“ Though danger be mickle,
And favor so fickle ;
Yet duty doth tickle
My fancy to write :
Concerning how pretty,
How fine and how netty,
Good huswife should jetty
From morning to night.”

This work contains an abundance of directions, in his usual style of versification, for the conduct of household duties. He directs the servants, before breakfast, to be set to work:

“ Let some to peel hemp, or else rushes to twine,
To spin, or to card, or to seething of brine.”

At breakfast time the wife was, in those days, the carver for the farm servants:

“ Let huswife be carver, let pottage be heat,
A mess to each one with a morsell of meat.”

In the cookery department the now nearly extinct race of turnspits were indispensable attendants upon the cook:

“ Good diligent turnbroche, and trusty withal.”

In his washing section he is rather more terse than gentle in his conclusion:

“ Maids, wash well, and wring well, but beat, ye wot how,
If any lack beating, I fear it be you.”

In his directions for malt-making he alludes to the use of

straw and wood, but does not mention the modern fuel, coke, or cinders. They used it seems to dine at noon :

"By noon, see your dinner be ready and neat ;
Let meat tarry servant, not servant his meat."

The mistress of the house then made, as now in some parts of England, her own candles, it seems :

"Provide for thy tallow, ere frost cometh in,
And make thine own candle, ere winter begin."

Twice a week, Sundays and Thursdays, the ploughmen were entitled to roast meat for supper ; and to a harvest goose when the corn was gathered in. At harvest-home the mistress was enjoined—

Remember, thou, therefore, though I do it not,
The seed-cake and pasties, and firmety pot."

In Tusser's time a very unwholesome custom prevailed, in the absence of carpets, of strewing the citizens' houses with rushes, and those of the country with flowers. He gives, therefore, a list of "strewing flowers of all sorts," in which we find only the common sort of flowers now cultivated, such as cowslips, daisies, lavender, roses, sage, tansy, violets, &c.

Such were the works of Tusser, writings which were long in the hand-book of the English country gentleman. That they were popular is evidenced by the rapid succession of copious editions which fell to their lot ; that they were read with delight is shown by the way in which he is commonly quoted by the farmer of all grades. If he had spoken in prose, as has been sometimes suggested, he might certainly have been more instructive to the few, but he would not have been read by the many.

The popular details and histories of all nations escaping from rudeness are commonly written in verse ; and multitudes can learn these by heart who never were taught to read. Tusser, therefore, is deserving of the gratitude of the English farmer, for his labors tended to improve, to refine, to elevate the profession he celebrated in his verses. The attempt at any thing like a systematic treatise on farming had not, when Tusser died, been deemed possible. (*Quart. Journ. Agr.* vol. xii, p. 69.)

DOMESTIC ECONOMY FOR FARMERS.

We extract the following from the able address of Dr. Lee, delivered at the University of Georgia. Dr. Lee is well known as a scientific agricultural writer. He was not long since elected to the Professorship of Agriculture in the above

University. Would not all our institutions do well to imitate the example of this one?

Domestic economy is named by the munificent founder of this new professorship as worthy of our deliberate study; and all thoughtful persons will see the propriety of cultivating and improving this pleasant home feature in rural life. It is possible for one's home not to be so pleasant as it ought to be; and in nine cases out of ten, where such is the fact, some defect in domestic economy will be at the bottom of the difficulty. There are a thousand ways in which bad household economy leads to bad plantation management, inducing pecuniary embarrassments, and not a little untold unhappiness.

Domestic economy is not penuriousness, nor the abridgement of any comfort for the purpose of accumulating property. On the contrary, it has for its object an increase of domestic enjoyment by a more judicious use of whatever means one may appropriate for the support of himself and family. It is an old and common remark, "that one half of mankind know not how the other half live;" and it must be confessed that the art and science of living well have received less public discussion and been more neglected than many other subjects of almost infinitely less importance. Wise economy in the use of fuel for warming dwellings, making them really comfortable at the minimum expense, is alone worthy of more than one public lecture. Many families contrive to burn a great deal of wood without making their rooms comfortable, owing to defect in doors, windows, floors, ceilings, and chimneys, which let out all heated air, and let in all that is colder from without with the utmost freedom of motion. The cost of cutting and hauling firewood is not diminished by those that suffer most from cold in such poor apologies for houses. They appear to be constructed with a view to compel a prodigious waste of fuel and to receive the least possible benefit from its combustion.

Fire-places and chimneys in common use are rarely made on any sound principles of economy, either for health, comfort, or the pocket. Let a house-keeper make as large openings through the sides of his dwelling as those out of all his fire-places, through his chimneys, and keep them open in the cold of winter as well as in the heat of summer, and the folly of such an act will be apparent to all. But custom renders common observers thoughtless of evils and discomforts of no inconsiderable magnitude, which, if not familiar and long endured, would appear perfectly intolerable. Careful experiments in the construction of fire-places and chimneys have led to great improvements, by which both economy of fuel and an

agreeable warmth are obtained. All the scientific principles and mechanical arrangements involved in this economical problem will be hereafter elucidated.

Every family needs pure water for purposes of drinking, cooking, ablution, washing cloths, and other indispensable uses, and it is an economical question of great moment, in the course of a life time, how a full supply of soft wholesome water can be obtained at a family residence. In this place something over a ton of water falls in rain on every square yard in the course of a year. At this estimate, an area of twenty yards square would yield four hundred tons in twelve months. To filter and preserve pure so much of this water as one may need for every day consumption are points in domestic economy worthy of our best consideration.

No one who has not made it the subject of special inquiry would credit the statement showing the losses and vexations that arise from bad economy in the management of water.

The putting up, curing, and keeping of all kinds of meat is an art susceptible of much improvement. It is not less a chemical than an economical question, and should be studied as a branch of organic chemistry. Intimately associated with the keeping of meat is the question of making sweet, delicious butter, and of preserving it from rancidity and other effects the year round. All sensible persons will admit the general lack of knowledge and care in this branch of domestic economy. Indeed, the more closely we examine *common things* in domestic affairs the more glaring do their errors appear. Our educational system overlooks those branches of knowledge which have direct bearing on our comfort and happiness every day of our lives, while it cultivates ornamental literature and ornamental arts designed for show rather than use. I would not condemn anything truly ornamental, whether in art or literature, but urge the study of domestic economy as a science. It deeply concerns all that we eat, all that we drink, our sleep at night, our clothing by day, and our health and comfort at all times, from the cradle to the end of our existence in this world. Man is by nature a social being, and the wise cultivation of his social faculties and domestic habits gradually transforms the wild brutal savage, whose hand, like that of Cain, is stained with the blood of his murdered brother, into a civilized, humanized, member of the most advanced community. Human elevation from primeval darkness, ignorance, crime, and suffering, so far as it depends on the efforts of man himself, may be reduced to fixed principles and a legitimate science. Educational efforts in this direction neither reject

nor claim to supersede the advantages of Christianity. On the contrary, those who have done most to improve society by the increase and diffusion of useful knowledge through the medium of books and periodicals, and by founding institutions of learning and science, have both recognized and felt the ennobling influence of the divine teaching of the Bible. The day has, happily, gone by when a conflict between science and the Bible was seriously apprehended by many educated men who took a hasty and superficial view of what appeared contradictory or incompatible. It is not my purpose to discuss this feature of science; while I have thought it not amiss at the commencement of my first course of lectures to indicate in the fewest words possible my profound regard for the Christian religion. In teaching geology in connexion with agriculture, I have occasionally met with pious men who feared that the acknowledged truths of this science in reference to the age of our planet, and of the many extinct genera of living beings which have inhabited it, might weaken the popular belief in the account of the creation as given in the first chapter of Genesis. I need hardly say that it is the interpretation, not the text, that fails to harmonize with geology.

COTTON.

We alluded last week to the inordinate prices of food that ruled during the year 1854, and the influence those prices, in accordance with custom, have exerted in reducing the consumption of goods. The following table will show the quantity of yarns produced in England, and the distribution annually, with the prices of wheat:

Years.	Price wheat.	Goods con- sumed.	Goods ex- ported.	Yarns ex- ported.	Total pro- duced.
	<i>s.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
1845.....	50	169,619,083	221,032,074	136,618,443	527,270,700
1846.....	53	156,274,201	217,693,617	159,601,482	533,269,300
1847.....	68	63,904,349	191,969,597	119,922,254	375,269,200
1848.....	51	190,363,013	204,812,157	131,874,230	526,889,400
1849.....	45	148,142,700	256,260,000	153,261,000	558,163,700
1850.....	40	173,192,000	222,956,000	123,977,000	520,125,000
1851.....	39	191,950,500	255,689,000	129,649,000	577,488,500
1852.....	40	272,972,638	262,585,498	133,501,864	668,860,000
1853.....	52	232,491,500	285,116,500	136,166,000	654,274,000
1854.....	72	241,539,700	319,383,700	133,264,100	694,687,500

In the year 1845, the change upon the consumption of commodities, which the new policy of the government (adopted

in 1842,) created, began to be felt, and the demand for goods was enhanced. In the latter part of 1846, food began to rise, under the influence of the crop failure of that year, and the influence of those prices upon the consumption of goods is very manifest in the figures. It is to be remarked, however, that the cotton crop was small in the same season, and notwithstanding the small production and consumption of goods, the prices of cotton were maintained. In that year, however, the large sales of farm produce by the United States sustained active markets here, and the quantity taken by United States spinners was not diminished. In England, the general results of the policy of 1842, of which the principal was to promote the consumption of goods, is to be remarked in the quantities used in Great Britain. The weight of yarns there consumed in 1854 was 72 millions pounds, or nearly 50 per cent. more than in 1854; or, with a price of 72s. for wheat, England consumed nearly 35 per cent. of the goods she produced, while, in 1845, when wheat was at 50s., she used only 32 per cent. of the goods she made. The fact shows that the general prosperity has so improved, that very high prices for food diminish trade in a far less ratio than formerly. If we estimate the bales of cotton at 400 pounds each, and take the consumption of each country with the United states crop, we have results as follows :

Years.	United States crop.	Consumption in United States.	Consumption in Great Britain.	Average price cotton in Great Britain.
1845.....	2,394,503	389,606	424,000	d.
1846.....	2,100,537	422,897	390,680	4 ¹ / ₂
1847.....	1,778,651	427,967	159,760	6 ¹ / ₂
1848.....	2,347,634	531,772	465,907	4 1-16
1849.....	2,728,596	518,039	370,350	4 ¹ / ₂
1850.....	2,096,706	487,769	432,080	7 ¹ / ₂
1851.....	2,355,257	404,108	479,870	5 ¹ / ₂
1852.....	3,015,029	603,108	682,480	5 ¹ / ₂
1853.....	3,262,882	671,009	581,228	6
1854.....	2,930,027	610,571	603,844	5 ¹ / ₂

This table of British consumption of course includes cotton from all sources, but the quantity consumed in both countries in 1845 was equal to 33 per cent. of the United States crop. In 1854, a year of general depression, and very high prices for food, the two countries consumed equal to 41 per cent. of the United States crop. In 1853, which was the largest crop year, the two countries used 38 per cent. of the crop. The

figures for United States consumption embrace only the quantities taken from the ports. The general result is, that under very unfavorable circumstances, war and famine, the consumption by the two countries is overtaking the production, notwithstanding that the production is stimulated by continued high prices for the raw material. The first months of the year 1855, show depression in the trade, after more than a year of high prices for money and food, but the promise is now fair of good harvests, that will reduce the prices of food, at a time when money will have become very abundant, and restored peace have induced the disposition to use it. It is also the case that high confidence is entertained in a great modification of the commercial codes of the leading powers of Europe, which, taught by the experience of England, see, in more liberal provisions and reduced tariffs, the true way of restoring the national finances and making taxes prolific, by developing the prosperity of those who are to pay them.

It is a remarkable feature of the war, that the demand for English goods in the Levant, and those countries where the large war expenditure has taken place, is very great. The cotton goods sent thither reach 87 millions against 28 millions yards last year, and the effect of the introduction of those goods in those quarters it is anticipated will be permanent.

A VALUABLE AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENT.

Permit me to call attention to a late invention by Mr. J. W. Corey, of Indiana, for which a patent will be issued next week. At this time, when the world is discussing the merits of Minie rifles and Colt's revolvers, and similar tools for the trade of death, it is not amiss to speak of things pertaining to agriculture, the most delightful occupation of peace.

The cultivation of corn by machinery has been the subject of countless experiments. All intelligent inventors of that class have sought to construct an implement by which to furrow and drop three or four grains of corn accurately and often as the operator pleases. This, you will perceive, besides the furrowing, covers two effects—the dropping the seed, and the dropping them, not at a given distance, but at will. A very distinguished gentleman, yet standing at the head of the agricultural movement in Ohio, did not hesitate to say that the man who accomplished all this by machinery was worthy exaltation to the first rank of inventors.

He made the assertion, it is to be supposed, under the conviction that it was impossible. The multitude of failures, the

study, time, and money spent, and even genius exhausted, in the effort, almost justified the impression. Conscious of this, and deeply interested in whatever concerns the advancement of agriculture, I hasten to render unto Mr. Corey some little of the great honor that is due him, and call the attention of manufacturers and farmers, that he may be more substantially rewarded.

Most machines of the kind will furrow and drop the seed, two effects of comparatively easy accomplishment; but the third effect, to wit, the dropping at the operator's will, has been the difficulty. And this deficiency in all machines heretofore tried has been the reason why they have not been generally adopted. Thus, by some the seed is merely drilled in the field, so that cross ploughing is impossible; others drop at regular distances marked by the revolution of a wheel or cam.

In this latter school the dropping is governed, as can be readily understood, by the machine itself and not by the operator. The deficiency is palpable. For lack of something better, the farmers have chosen to sow after the manner of their fathers. But the perfection of Mr. Corey's invention consists in the accomplishment of that very thing, viz: the dropping at the operator's pleasure. The simplicity of his contrivance is absolutely beautiful. While a horse walks briskly on with the planter, the workman, with his palm on the handle, deposits the grain—three or four, or any number—by a simple motion of his finger; and it makes little difference as to how level and well cleared the field is, for wherever a ploughman can make a furrow there he can use Corey's planter.

As the public will shortly have an opportunity of examining and testing the machine to their full satisfaction, it is only necessary to say, in the way of description, that it is modelled something like an ordinary shovel plough, and is neither heavier nor more unwieldy, while its cost will be but little greater. Its importance and value can be better appreciated by a statement of what it will do. One man with it can do the work which is commonly done by three and four—he can furrow, drop, cover, and roll. Nor is this all. By removing a slide box and reversing the covering shares he has a cultivator, light and beautiful as any a ploughman ever touched.

Contrast corn-planting after the old style with the mode his invention will initiate. Recall the great field, and hot sun, and interminable furrow; the dozen "hands"—some furrowing, others dopping, and a third party swinging their hoes. Think of the time it takes—the labor and the cost.

Then fancy this all obviated by a single machine—one man furrowing, dropping, and covering, and that, too, as fast as a horse can traverse the ground. Can it fail to work a revolution? Indeed, the simple invention can only be fully estimated by those who, like myself, have planted corn under a burning sun in a “big field” in “auld lang syne.”

Upon receipt of his letters, Mr. Corey will go to Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York for the purpose of disposing of territory. Manufacturers of agricultural implements will do well to look out for him. He will give them opportunity of examining and practically testing the virtue of his invention.

A FARMER.

COTTON AND ITS CULTURE.

“Broomsedge,” the interesting correspondent of the *Farmer & Planter*, writes as follows on the subject of cotton planting:

We never see the sense of throwing up, with great care, a high bed for cotton, and immediately set all hands to work to tear it down. We have tried various expedients, but never found out how to plant cotton until last spring. For this we acknowledge our indebtedness to Captain Thomas Byrd, of Greenwood, from whom we received an implement for smoothing and opening the cotton bed, which does its work to perfection, a cover adapted precisely to follow in the wake of the opening, leaving your beds nicely smoothed over and ready for the reception of the seed, and a scraper to do the first working—decidedly the best implements we have ever seen. This forms a complete set of implements, adapted to cotton culture, simple and cheap, which any good blacksmith and plough stocker can make easily. If Novice will try Captain Byrd's implements and not agree with us, we will acknowledge the corn, and pay for them. Let us be understood; we are not puffing an implement manufacturer, but offering an acknowledgment due to a public-spirited planter who took the pains to set us right.

By the way, while talking, we may as well say that the best variety of cotton we have ever planted is the “Calhoun cotton.” Where it originated we are unable to say. Captain Byrd kindly sent us half a bushel of seed, from which we have picked 511 lbs. of very beautiful cotton. The overseer counted 70 bolls upon one stalk not over knee high. It is no humbug, for we have selected our seed for years from fancy stalks, and, being side by side, we have been compelled reluctantly to give it up. We trust that even “Broomsedge”

may be allowed to puff a home-made article. Before closing, we must dissent, however, from Novice's declaration. Twelve hundred lbs. cotton per acre on common land—stand or no stand—it is no common land that will average 70 bolls of matured cotton per stalk.

NEW AND IMPROVED COTTON GIN.

Feeling a lively interest in whatever is calculated to promote the culture of our great southern staple, and to benefit that large class of the community engaged in it, we have observed with no little satisfaction the accounts of a cotton gin newly invented by an intelligent and well known citizen of this State, Mr. H. H. Fultz, lawyer and planter of Holmes county. Unless the descriptions we have had of it are at fault, and the successful experiments which have been made by experienced agriculturists to test its qualities, proving nothing, this machine is to cotton planters by far the most important invention which has been introduced to public attention since the days of Whitney. For the information of our planting friends we copy from the Coffeetown Herald the following description of this valuable invention:

The most important item is the improvement of the staple, next the increased quantity ginned in a given time, both of which is obtained by the new discovery.

The improvements consist in a very simple device placed on the interior of the cotton box, which gives a spiral motion to the roll from left to right, passing it directly across the saws, thus exposing a fresh surface to the teeth through the whole length of the device, which extends through the left hand end of the box to within about nine inches of the opposite end. The spiral motion ceasing with the device, and the seed are finished in the space left between the device and the right hand end of the box. In this space between the saws reduced to an half inch, in order to expedite the process of finishing. This gin being fed at the left end and finished at the right end, two separate and distinct qualities of cotton may be obtained by dividing the flue with a partition in the "pick room," the best opposite to where the gin is fed and the inferior opposite to where the roll is finished or finally cleaned. The results of this invention are easily perceived.

1st. The quantity ginned in a given time is greatly increased.

2d. The quality of the staple is immeasurably improved; and,

3d. The increased quantity obtained by a thorough cleaning of the seed, which can be done without any danger of injuring the staple of the inferior quality, and of course not affecting the superior.

The editor of the Herald has been shown letters from experienced cotton buyers, stating that the sample produced by this gin, owing to the improvement in the staple, and the cleansing process which it undergoes, will command from 1½ to 2 cents per pound more than the article prepared by the gins ordinarily in use. In addition, there is an increased saving in the quantity of cotton ginned of about one pound in every thirty. These advantages, taken into consideration with its time-saving qualities, commend it to the highest favor.—

[*Jackson Mississippian.*]

FLORIDA COTTON.

Our Florida friends, says the Savannah Journal, are congratulating themselves that their short staple cottons are beginning to be appreciated in the markets of the world. They quote with manifest satisfaction the following paragraph from a late circular of W. P. Wright, a well known cotton broker of New York:

"We have, all through the season, been bare of New Orleans cotton, which, perhaps, is not to be regretted, since it proves to be the poorest crop, as to staple and cleanliness, of any within my recollection; and great dissatisfaction is expressed from Liverpool at the very low range of classification upon which orders have been filled at New Orleans; in many cases cotton shipped as middling proving no better than good ordinary. Uplands, and particularly *Floridas*, on the contrary, are both good in staple and color, and remarkably clean and free from leaf. They seem to be properly appreciated, almost for the first time, in Liverpool. I have seen samples of sales of the latter at ½d per lb. more than the same grades in Orleans, owing to *superior staple* and freedom from leaf."

But our southern neighbors are not only well satisfied with the quality of the product; they are boasting considerably of the quantity which their lands are yielding, per acre. A correspondent of the Floridian writes as follows:

"Mr. Editor: I enclose a New York broker's report of the cotton market. The mention made of our Florida cottons is the first complimentary notice of the kind I ever saw from such a quarter, and shows that we can make as good cotton as in any part of the cotton region. I will here also mention a fact as to the fertility of our soil. On one of General Bally's

plantations in Jefferson county, under the management of Mr. James Baugh, from 320 acres there were gathered and sent to market 364 bales, the lightest of which was not under 450 pounds. Where can this be beat?"

GENERAL AND INCIDENTAL VIEWS UPON AGRICULTURE.

The progress and improvements in agricultural science must ever occupy an important place in the American mind. The immense extent of unoccupied fertile lands, now within the limits of the United States, presents a vast field for agricultural labor, not only for the present generation, but for unborn millions. And judging from the spirit of enterprise, and love of freedom, which has ever characterized the Anglo-Saxon race, who would venture to set bounds to the onward movement of this already mighty nation? Who would circumscribe her territory, and saying, "thus far and no farther," imagine that her sons would be satisfied with her present limits, until her population should be as dense as that of Belgium, or even that of England? It is said of the western pioneer, that when another man settles within twenty miles of him, he thinks he has hardly elbow room, and talks of moving farther west. This, of course, if true, can only apply to a few isolated cases; but enough is shown to satisfy the mind that Americans would never be contented with small patches of ground, such as, in the thickly settled countries of Europe, they call farms.

It is true that the strength, influence, and prosperity of a nation do not consist so much in her great extent of territory, as in a good moral and political government, and the healthy operation of her industrial arts; but to Americans these are concomitants to the advance of civilization; and the history of our country exhibits the well known fact, that the adventurous part of her population has ever acted as pioneers to the more gregarious portion. The term pioneer, however, must not be understood as applying exclusively to the squatter, who cuts down a few trees, builds a log cabin, and selling out his improvement advances further west. His successor, though more steady and durable, is often but another wave in the advance of the more permanent population; for he, too, after enlarging his farm, and extending his improvements, thinking his situation too poor, too inconvenient to market, or too sickly, sells out; and possessing some of the adventurous spirit of his predecessor, and following in his footsteps, starts again in pursuit of a new home, where he may or may not become permanently located. This class of our population, though not possessing and cultivating scientific and literary pursuits to the extent of the more permanent citizen, yet possess many noble, and in some respects superior qualities to the latter class. The bold and adventurous spirit of the pioneer finds constant occupation in subduing the wilds of nature, and converting them into rich fields, which, under the care and labor of his successor, must teem with the abundant fruits of the earth. Untrammelled by the contracted views and fanatical notions of denser populations, he finds in the contemplation of the rough and virgin, but majestic, works of his Creator, teachings of a pure and liberal sentiment, and spurning that narrow bigotry which makes "man the greatest enemy of man," he applies himself with energy to the vast field of enterprise before him, and becomes the "noblest work of God." This class of our population forms, also, the strongest arm of defence in our country's need.

Exposed through life to difficulties and dangers which require the constant exercise of all their abilities to overcome, their physical and mental parts receive that culture which eminently qualifies them for deeds of daring and undaunted bravery. With expanded views and heart overflowing with patriotism, the pioneer does not stop to scrutinize the acts of government, or set himself up as an expounder of its laws, but, relying upon the wisdom of our statesmen, he cheerfully responds to the nation's call, and, stepping fearlessly into the breach, charges upon the foe of his country's cause.

In directing our minds upon the existence, character, and progress of the industrial arts, we find them so intimately associated, so dependent upon each other, that it is difficult at first glance to determine their separate value or importance. But if at the same time we consider the vast amount of rich lands now in cultivation, and the still greater amount which is accessible to the farmer

and only needs his industrious care to reward him with its rich products; if, also, we consider the immense value of these products as furnishing food and clothing—the two most essential wants for the sustenance and comfort of man—we must, at least in the United States, claim for this branch of industry that paramount importance to which agriculture is justly entitled. The intelligent mind who is familiar with our agricultural resources taken in connexion with the existing and prospective demand for its products, which the thickly populated countries of the world must ever afford, cannot hesitate to admit the pre-eminent position which agriculture holds. But while we acknowledge this superiority over other arts of industry, we must at the same time give great weight to the value of its adjuncts. Agriculture owes its prosperity in a great measure to the labor-saving implements which the inventive and mechanical genius of man have brought to its aid. And these become, as it were, a part and parcel of its very existence. But it must also be borne in mind that these very implements, though perfected by mechanical ingenuity, are not unfrequently the offspring of agricultural minds whose intelligent observation fills up the deficiencies which unsuccessful labor suggests.

That healthy division of labor which keeps up a well-balanced connexion between the different branches of industry is essential to prosperity; but in this industrial system or compact, as it exists in America, agriculture stands as the great fulcrum or lever which gives motion and activity to all other arts, and extends its influence to the minutest ramifications of all social interests.

Having, then, arrived at these general conclusions, the mind is instinctively brought to contemplate the almost illimitable field of enterprise laid open to the agriculturist, the almost unbounded wealth that flows from our agricultural products, and the bearing of these upon the present and future prosperity of our country. And what a fund of thought do these reflections present. Where is there a nation on earth possessing such agricultural resources, and a government and people so favorable for their development?

But have we arrived at perfection in our system of agriculture? Have improvements in agricultural science reached their climax? The illiterate farmer, whose organ of self-esteem is more largely developed than his agricultural genius, will tell you that his system of cultivation "can't be beat," and therefore "it's no use for you to talk to me about your labor-saving machines; it's all humbug, just got up to encourage idleness." His neighbor, who is one of the "sovereigns," thinks the wheels of government would stop but for his valuable aid, and is too busy getting up an abolition petition to remove that "dreadful curse of slavery" from our land; or he is too much engaged otherwise in regulating the affairs of government to give his attention to the "common business of farming." Another individual, just arrived at manhood, with just a sufficient smattering of education to find out that he is a genius of some calibre, (a fact which unfortunately his friends and acquaintances have never been able to discover,) begins to cast about as to what pursuit is most worthy of his rare talents. And, looking with contempt upon that occupation which has honestly supported and enriched his family for several generations back, holds to himself somewhat the following language: "Agriculture, if a science at all, is a finished one, and offers no field for expansion of thought or the exercise of intellectual parts. I must, therefore, adopt one of the learned professions, where I can arise to distinction and become an ornament to society. And of these professions, law appears to offer the greatest chances of success; as I may become a judge, or go to the legislature, then to Congress, and may be get to be President." So, instead of devoting himself to agriculture, where he might have attained a useful and respectable position, he goes off to some large city to get manufactured into a lawyer. And then and there, after having divided his attention equally between the study of law and the accomplishments of a fop, and after having "wasted in riotous living" the hard earned remittances of his old father and elder brothers at home, he finally gets "put through," and returns home to his rural district a polished gentleman, "what knows something." Here he soon discovers that he is an orator; gets to stump speaking, and expatiates extensively upon the horrors of intemperance, dwells at great length on the evils of slavery, and hurls bitter anathemas against the heathen slaveholders. Big words and ready dogmas flow fluently from his lips, and his unsophisticated hearers, especially the old Quaker ladies, gaze and listen with astonishment at his depth of learning. Such erudition must not be suffered to "waste its fragrance on the desert air," and therefore he is soon made a Michigan legislator or a Wisconsin judge. Here he expounds the constitution and reviews the acts of

Congress with so much wisdom that the intellects of Webster and Clay are completely thrown in the shade. As a legislator he interprets the constitution according to his own pure and exalted ideas of philanthropy; denies the constitutionality of the fugitive slave bill, and brings forward or sustains legislative enactments by which this bill is rendered a nullity in his own State. As a judge, he also denies the constitutionality of the fugitive slave bill, and discovers that under the operations of the "higher law" there is no perjury in violating his oath to sustain the constitution and laws, and therefore refuses to execute those laws which do violence to his tender sympathies.

These are some of the ways in which the mind is unfortunately drawn off from the useful and practical pursuits of life to gratify those vain and mistaken aspirations which afford but a poor compensation to the individual himself, while they tend to disturb the domestic peace of the nation. In many of the thickly settled parts of our country the greatest vagabond is found to be the most brawling politician. And even many of our humble but honest class of citizens are found neglecting their farms to engage in political wrangling, or straining every nerve to promote the election of a favorite candidate, upon whose success they appear to think the very existence of our republic depends. If half the time and energy which is now spent upon these profitless and exciting subjects was bestowed upon that pursuit which, while it secures a calm and healthy action of mind and body, provides liberally for the comforts and necessities of life, how much would individual and social happiness be promoted.

In many of the thickly settled parts of our country the greatest vagabond is found to be the most brawling politician; and even many of our humble, but honest class of citizens, are found neglecting their farms to engage in political wrangling, or straining every nerve to promote the election of a favorite candidate, upon whose success they appear to think the very existence of our republic depends. If half the time and energy which is now spent upon these profitless and exciting subjects was bestowed upon that pursuit, which, while it secures a calm and healthy action of mind and body, provides liberally for the comforts and necessities of life; how much would individual and social happiness be promoted!

The opinion obtains with many that the cultivation of the soil is a species of drudgery, which cramps the mind and affords no opportunity for literary, political, or scientific distinction. But this is certainly not the case; for our greatest statesmen were farmers; and, when temporarily relieved of their official duties, always returned to this pleasing occupation with more than ordinary zest. Even the poor man who has to labor daily on his farm finds many moments of leisure, in which he may store his mind with useful knowledge. Indeed his very occupation, promoting health, also gives vigor to his mind, and enables him to grasp an idea with greater solidity of thought than the pampered bookworm who deals in theory, and whose practical knowledge hardly extends beyond the art of tying a cravat or making a mint julep. If then the poor farmer finds leisure to acquire information from books, how much greater must these advantages be enjoyed by him whose amount of means relieves him from the necessity of working with his hands, and whose superior education affords him a groundwork for prosecuting literary and scientific researches. Agricultural pursuits are not only attended by a high degree of interest and pleasure, but may be varied by the enjoyment of other tastes and amusements. Farming operations create no barrier to study or the acquisition of a liberal education; but on the contrary repay the farmer for the knowledge he may obtain from the experience of others.

It is also a common belief that agriculture is so simple in its nature, that any uncultivated mind may pursue it successfully. It is undoubtedly true that under favorable circumstances of soil and season, with the necessary labor, fair crops have been made without any regular system of culture. But it is equally true that these very same crops would have been much augmented by the aid of the improvements in agricultural science. And he who, wrapped up in his own conceits, jogs along through life without availing himself of these improvements, or profiting by the experience of the past, becomes a mere cipher in society. But this is not all. The importance of a knowledge of agricultural science is chiefly shown in its power of enabling the planter to contend against adverse circumstances.

By aid of the improvements which are now known, and which yet remain for the intelligent mind to discover, vast changes may be effected, and great increase of products obtained, even under unfavorable conditions of soil, season and cli-

mate. To apply these improvements and exercise the mind in the discovery of others, should be the aim, and must be to the interest of all agriculturists who expect great results. These results are very desirable, and their agency in promoting individual and national prosperity too well known to need discussion. But how are they to be obtained? We certainly cannot reach them by blindly neglecting the means which study and observation affords to secure them.

This brings us to the cause of education, which, although too momentous a subject to be discussed here, yet may be passingly alluded to, as the very groundwork of agricultural success. By education in this connexion, we do not mean that spurious instruction which teaches the youth of our land to turn up his nose at honest labor, and to believe that he cannot be a gentleman unless he become a member of one of the learned professions, or a noisy politician, or a literary character. Such false notions belong to sickly hot-house plants who, without a dime in their pockets, and spending their time in idleness, love to trace their genealogy back to antiquity, and thinking all worth lies in noble descent, are surprised that others should believe with the poet, that

"Honor and shame from no condition rise,
Act well your part, there all the honor lies."

We mean that system of education which, while it reaps all the advantages of schools and colleges, stops not there, but discarding narrow prejudices, expands the mind, and enlarging the understanding, stimulates the individual to deeds of noble enterprise. Here lies the great field of operations for parental instruction. Many parents, unfortunately, delight in imparting and cultivating in their sons a tenacity for crude opinions and hide-bound notions, which, as household gods, have been handed down from father to son for successive generations. Instead of imparting a useful and liberal sentiment, the father is well pleased, and secretly admires the brilliant parts of his son, when he hears him eloquently promulgating fanatical notions or sagely conducting an argument upon the difference between tweedledum and tweedledee. By a correct system of education, the penniless lawyer or doctor, who, at the tail-end of his profession, sits in his narrow office from morn till night (like a spider in his web) watching for a call; or the gifted young man who behind a counter wastes the prime of life in sycophantic smiles and humble entreaties to his patrons in order to sell a yard of type; or the starving laborer of our large cities, would be aroused to energy, and the rich uncultivated lands which now lie idle would soon be teeming with industrious inhabitants.

Why should there be such want and misery as are to be found about our large cities when this favored land of ours offers such large rewards to industry and enterprise? Surely there must be something wrong in our political economy or in the system of instruction imparted to the youth of our land.

If, instead of striving exclusively for those high classical attainments, those nice doctrinal points, which too often lead to bigotry in politics and religion, the youth of the present age were taught to cultivate those liberal sentiments, which take a clear and practical view of the pursuits and operations of life as it is; which curb fanaticism, and spurn that sickly philanthropy that cannot look beyond a fixed idea; if they were taught to respect the laws and the rights of their fellow citizens; to venerate that great chart, the constitution, by which the ship of state has been so long and so happily guided; in short, if instead of officiously acting as guardians for the consciences and conduct of others, they were taught to mind their own business, and build up their reputations by their own industry and enterprise, what vigor, what freshness, what tone, would be imparted to society and the progress of the industrial arts.

These general remarks upon the agricultural resources of our country being properly considered by the true patriot and philanthropist, what bright visions of future greatness and wealth for our beloved country must rise up before him. If from some high eminence we could, with inspired vision, look through the dim vista of the future, and behold this favored land, in all its length and breadth, covered with millions of happy, industrious, and prosperous farmers, and dotted over with flourishing cities, what delight would be experienced by the true philanthropist. And must this fair picture be tarnished? Must fanaticism, bigotry, and sectional jealousies destroy this great republic? Must the antiquarian at some future time roam over our deserted and ruined cities, and the future historian record our fallen greatness? May the author of all good teach us wisdom, and save us from so great a calamity.

JOURNAL OF HOME AND FOREIGN COMMERCE.

THE MOBILE RIVER AND ITS BRANCHES—COMMERCE OF MOBILE.

Mobile, as a seaport, labors under defects which, if permitted to continue, must interfere very materially with its future prospects of commercial prosperity. The channel of the river at the mouth, and the bed of the bay immediately in front, are too shallow to permit the heavier ships that enter the bay to discharge at the wharves. This necessarily entails on the larger ships additional expenses, which, in a far greater proportion than they act as a tax, must impede the increase of its commerce.

The cause of this want of sufficient navigable depth in, and in front of, the mouth of the river, is principally owing to the withdrawal of a great portion of its water through the several outlets or branches. The river has been left entirely to itself, subject to any and every change that might arise from local or accidental circumstances. The shoal water of one year may have been deep water the year previous; while, in some instances, the accidental stoppage of a floating tree has produced first a shoal, afterwards an island, which has finally caused an entire change in the channel of the river. In this way the river has been suffered to create for itself different outlets or channels into the bay, the natural consequence of which has been that the water, which, if kept united in one channel, would have been able to maintain a sufficient navigable depth to the Gulf, divided between different outlets, has been gradually filling up the main channel with the sedimentary and other matter brought about from above, from the mere want of sufficient weight and velocity to scour it out. The navigable capacity of the main channel of the Mobile river depends entirely on the scouring power of the upland waters. If the quantity of water flowing through it is diminished, the diminution must necessarily have an injurious effect on the channel. The loss, therefore, to the main channel, of the water now discharged through the other outlets, is a matter of serious

consideration, for, if private or individual interest is permitted to interfere with the improvement of the river by maintaining and keeping open those outlets, the port of Mobile will, in the course of time, be ruined; because no river can continue to maintain the same depth of channel, if deprived of its ancient and legitimate supply of upland water.

The branch or outlet east of Pinto island, inasmuch as it draws off from the main channel a considerable portion of its water, must diminish the power and velocity of the portion that remains; because an abatement of quantity is proportionally an abatement of force. The scouring power of a river depends on the quantity of water flowing through it and the slope of its surface. If, therefore, the quantity of water in the main channel will be greater after closing up the outlet east of Pinto island than before, the effect will be an increase in the scouring action of the water in that channel. If that outlet and that of Spanish river are both closed, the quantity of water acting on the bed of the main channel and also the force with which every proportional part does act will be increased, the necessary consequence of which must be a deepening of the channel.

In some countries large reservoirs are used with success for keeping harbors open and clear, the effect being produced by an increase in the scouring action on the bottom by the increased quantity of water introduced. Turning the water now discharged through the several outlets into the main channel of the Mobile river would have precisely the same effect, and it would be gross injustice to the commerce of the city of Mobile, and the general interests of the state of Alabama, that the outlet east of Pinto island and that called Spanish river should be suffered to remain, when the immense importance of having a large commercial depot with a safe navigable harbor is taken into consideration.

The channel east of Pinto island was partially stopped up in the summer of 1854 by three rows of piles driven across the outlet, with brush-wood laid between them and covered with ballast stone and brick bats, a passage way about 116 feet wide between the piles was left for vessels of light burden. The partial closing of the outlet was attended by an increase of depth in the passage left open, resulting from the increased scouring power of the current caused by the increased head arising from the rest of the pass being closed and the vent diminished. Any further increase of depth, however, has been prevented by covering the bottom with material too heavy for the current to wash out, while the precaution of shoeing the

ends of the dam next the passage still open with rubble stones finding their proper slope removes any danger of the piles being washed away. The velocity of the water will, however, decrease with the increase of the cross-sectional area of the river's bed below the outlet, and the dam become gradually less exposed to injury.

In order to explain more fully the amount of injury the main channel of the Mobile river has sustained by the loss of the water drawn off from it by the Spanish river and the pass east of Pinto island, the following calculations are given:

The quantity of water passing through the Mobile river, a short distance above Spanish river, at half-ebb in December, 1854, was in round numbers	Cubic feet per second. 44,000
The quantity of water passing through the Mobile river, a short distance below Spanish river, at half-ebb	20,000
The quantity of water passing through Spanish river, at half-ebb	24,000
The quantity of water passing through the outlet east of Pinto island, at half-ebb	10,000
The quantity of water passing through Mobile river, below the branch of Pinto island, at half-ebb	14,000
Mean depth of Mobile river above Spanish river...	25 ft.
" " " " " below " "	15 "
" " " " " Pinto island	10 "

From these calculations it will appear that by those two outlets the waters of the Mobile river are reduced in quantity by 34,000 cubic feet per second, Spanish river drawing off 24,000 cubic feet, and Pinto island outlet 10,000.

These calculations also show conclusively, what is strange that any one in his senses should doubt, that the simple principle laid down in every paper written in behalf of the river improvement is correct: namely, that the depth of the channel of a river, all other things being equal, depends on the quantity of water flowing through it. Look at the proof. The channel of Mobile river above Spanish river has a volume of water amounting to 44,000 cubic feet per second flowing through it, which creates for itself a mean depth of 25 feet. Spanish river draws off 24,000 cubic feet, leaving only 20,000 cubic feet in the main channel. What is the consequence? The depth is reduced to 15 feet. Can anything be more conclusive? But lest there should be still any doubt on that point

there is the corroborative testimony of the outlet east of Pinto island. This pass draws off a volume of water amounting to 10,000 cubic feet per second from the volume remaining in the main channel, which is somewhat increased by the water of Chickasaw bogue and others, leaving only 14,000 cubic feet in the main channel. What follows again? A further reduction in the depth. The mean depth of 15 feet above the pass is reduced to a mean depth of 10 feet below. Is any thing more necessary? Can any argument be stronger than these facts? For, let it be remembered, that these are not experiments, but actual facts, the necessary and legitimate result of the operation of nature's own laws. If, then, the drawing off from the main channel of the river of the water flowing through it has been attended by a decrease of mean depth from 25 to 10 feet, is it not reasonable to conclude that restoring the volume of water drawn off would have the effect of making the depth below those outlets nearly, if not quite, equal to what it is above?

Let it be distinctly understood that without an additional supply of water from some quarter, the entrance to, and the passage in front of, the river cannot be deepened. Here, then, is a volume of water wasted through these outlets sufficient to increase the navigable capacity of the main channel to a considerable extent. Let the water flowing through those outlets be restored to their legitimate channel, which they ought never have been suffered to leave, and that increase will inevitably follow; because, an increase in the quantity of water increases its velocity; an increase in the velocity increases its scouring power; and an increase in its scouring power causes an increase in its depth.

It may be a question, however, with some persons, which is the more important, the flat-boat trade through Pinto island pass, or the regular shipping trade through the main channel. If the first be the more valuable and important interest, let it retain the channel which a neglect of the true interests of the river has created for it. But if the commercial interests of Mobile, which are inseparably connected with the existence and improvement of the main channel and its entrance from the bay is worth preserving, let those passes be closed; because, if they are not closed, not only will the improvement in the present condition of the river be an impossibility, but even the present depth of the main channel will gradually diminish, until its navigable capacity will sink to the level of a flat-boat trade.

SOUTHERN COMMERCIAL CONVENTION AT NEW ORLEANS.—NO. 4.

CLOSE OF THE CONVENTION—FIFTH AND SIXTH DAYS—DISCUSSION UPON
SANITARY REGULATIONS—DIRECT TRADE—ABOLITION OF CUSTOM-HOUSES,
ETC.

Mr. A. P. Bennett, of Brownsville, Texas, offered the following preamble and resolution, which were referred to the general committee:

Whereas, There now exists a state of affairs upon our southwestern frontier that is deplorable alike to the agricultural and commercial interests, growth and prosperity of western Texas, and to the proper administration of justice, growing out of the absence of any treaty with the Republic of Mexico, of commerce, or the extradition of criminals, or fugitives from labor, therefore, be it

Resolved, That this convention recommend to the President and Senate of the United States the establishment of a mutual commercial treaty with Mexico, whereby our products shall be admitted into that country on equal terms with those of more favored nations; also a treaty for the mutual extradition of fugitives from justice and fugitives from labor or service—meaning slaves on the part of the United States, and peons on that of Mexico.

Rev. C. Cotton, of Mississippi, offered a resolution setting forth the importance of southern education to southern citizenship. The resolution was adopted.

Mr. Hyams, of Alexandria, called up his resolution on the subject of specific duties on sugar and molasses, and addressed the convention in a very able manner at considerable length in support of it. We regret that we are not able to give his speech in full. The resolution was adopted.

Mr. B. Musselman, of Kentucky, offered the following, which was adopted:

Whereas, The enlargement of the Louisville and Portland canal, at the Falls of the Ohio river, is contemplated by the general government of the United States, therefore, be it

Resolved, That this convention most earnestly requests the Congress of the United States, in making such contemplated improvements around the Falls of the Ohio River at Louisville, Kentucky, that such improvements be made at the southern side of the river.

Mr. Woolridge, of Kentucky, offered the following, which was referred to the general committee:

Resolved, That while we admire the great intellects of other lands and ages, we still consider it a subject of regret that an undue deference is paid to distinguished names which owe, perhaps, the greater portion of the pre-eminence they enjoy to antique association and the undistinguished admiration and homage of mankind—and that therefore this convention instruct Congress, that in all the educational systems under the control or influence of the general government the works of the poets, orators, and philosophers of republican America should obtain a decided preference over the literature of Greece, Rome, or the modern nations of Europe, especially of Great Britain—that so our youths may enjoy the advantage of the stirring, patriotic, and practical literature of our own progressive age and country, and be no longer hampered and oppressed by further theories of government, defunct models of literature, corrupt and demoralizing forms, social life or irrational and absurd systems of religious belief.

Mr. Jennings, of Louisiana, offered resolutions urging the

legislatures of the southern States to repeal all usury laws. Referred to the general committee.

The following resolutions from the general committee were then taken up and adopted :

Resolved, That this convention recommend to Congress the appropriation of sufficient funds for deepening the channel through Atchafalaya and Galveston bays, and for preventing the tendency of shoaling within the harbor of Galveston.

Resolved, That we also recommend the proper fortification of Galveston bay, and the establishment of a marine hospital there.

Resolved, That we recommend the continuation of the improvement of Matagorda bay.

Resolved, That this convention recommend to the Congress of the United States an appropriation for the improvement of the navigation of Red river.

Resolved, That this convention do recommend to the merchants and capitalists of southern commercial ports the establishment of lines of steamers between their respective ports and the different ports of Europe.

Resolved, That, to further this great object, Congress be recommended to make such appropriations for deepening the inlets to harbors and for other purposes as may be deemed necessary.

Professor Chilton, of Louisiana, addressed the convention at some length, and was listened to with attention, on the subject of deepening the mouths of the Mississippi.

On motion of Mr. Marshall, of Mississippi, the convention then adjourned until seven o'clock in the evening.

General Lamar said :

GENTLEMEN OF THE CONVENTION : When I accepted the office of president of this body, the deep interest I took in its deliberations, apart from the high confidence conferred upon me, determined me to remain with you until the close of your session. A variety of circumstances call me away, and I am constrained to throw myself upon your indulgence, and ask leave to retire. My present indisposition precludes the possibility of addressing you on this occasion in any manner that is congenial to my feelings. In parting with you, I can only say I leave my heart behind, a heart whose highest aspiration is for the good of my country and for the happiness of her most devoted champions.

This hall you have sanctified as the temple for the worship of liberty. And it is with pride and exultation that I have witnessed the prayer-offerings of patriotism and genius that have been laid upon the altar of the temple. The altar may perish in the dust, but the noble sentiments that have been uttered here and principles that have been set forth will never perish. They will roll down the tide of time, and be more durable than the greatest monuments in bronze or marble. Truth, my friends, gushing forth from the hearts of patriots, enforced by eloquence, and wearing the habiliments of poetry, is the brightest crown of a nation's glory. Our session has been a harmonious and united one, and one that I trust will

produce a full, and wide, and deep fruition of our highest hopes. And I think that the nation at large will find some reason to rejoice at the frankness of our sentiments and the fervor of our devotion. We part now, and may not meet again. The grateful recollection of kindness manifested towards me I cannot now command language to express. In taking my leave of you, I will not say farewell, but conclude by quoting those lovely lines :

“ Farewell, farewell, 'tis a lonely sound,
And oftentimes brings a sigh ;
But give to me when loved ones part
That sweet old word good-bye.”

EVENING SESSION.—The convention re-assembled at seven o'clock, General Lamar in the chair.

Judge Bemis offered resolutions requesting the general committee to report upon all business before them on Monday, and that the convention adjourn on Tuesday. Both were adopted.

A resolution offered by Mr. Howard, of Alabama, to the effect that that the next meeting of this convention shall be held in Mobile in May next, was laid on the table, subject to call.

A letter was read from Mr. Myers, chairman of the southern steam-packet committee, appointed at the Charleston convention, which enclosed the report of the committee and several resolutions. Referred to the general committee.

Rev. C. Colton, of Mississippi, addressed the convention on the subject of education. In the course of his remarks he stated that one or two gentlemen connected with southern universities had manuscripts in readiness for publication, and were only awaiting the action of the convention on the subject.

Rev. C. K. Marshall followed upon the same subject, with his usual force and elegance.

Mr. R. Nicholas, of Louisiana, offered the following resolution, which was adopted unanimously :

Resolved, That this convention most earnestly recommend to the legislature of Louisiana the application of \$1,000 a year of the school fund for the purpose of encouraging the publication of such school books as are adapted to the instruction of the youth of Louisiana.

Resolutions, reported upon favorably by the general committee, were taken up and adopted. They were as follows :

Asking Congress to establish a navy yard or naval depot at or near New Orleans.

Asking Congress so to revise the marine laws as to enable seamen who may have lost their protection papers to obtain admission to the marine hospitals.

Asking southern States to extend all possible aid and encouragement to the opening of the Tehuantepec route to the Pacific.

Asking Congress to make appropriations for a ship canal across the isthmus of Florida.

Asking Congress to assist southern and southwestern railroad enterprises by

alternate grants of land on the various routes, and the abolition of duties on railroad iron and other materials.

Resolutions adverse to the suspension of the navy yard at Memphis, and to the accumulation of coin in the United States treasury, were laid on the table indefinitely.

A series of resolutions, reported by the special committee on the Pacific railroad, asking Congress to aid in the construction of a great trunk railroad to the Pacific, by appropriating a portion of the public domain, and expressing the opinion in favor of one great trunk road, with branches to the principal cities on the Mississippi river, were adopted.

Judge Bemiss offered a resolution recommending the legislature of Louisiana to appropriate \$10,000 a year to aid in the establishment of a line of steamers from New Orleans to the most western port in Europe. Laid on the table.

The resolutions offered by Dr. Barton, in the morning, relative to the sanitary condition of the south, were taken up and adopted.

Dr. McGimsey, of Baton Rouge, offered resolutions requesting merchants and planters not to trade with the north, which were laid on the table.

The resolution of Mr. Howard, of Alabama, relative to the meeting of the convention in Mobile, in May next, was taken up and amended, by requesting the president to appoint a committee of — to ask the governors of the slave-holding States, and the mayors of the cities of said States, to appoint delegates to said convention.

Judge Walker moved to strike out all after the word "resolved," and insert, "that this convention, when it adjourns, adjourn *sine die*."

Some considerable discussion ensued upon these motions, and among others Mr. Pike, of Arkansas, stated that the reason why the attendance from the neighboring States was so much less than was expected, was because New Orleans had not only neglected to make arrangements for the meeting of the convention, but that one branch of the City Council had refused to concur with the other in a resolution inviting the governors of the respective States to appoint delegates. In many of the States it was believed that the convention would not meet, and he instanced those of South Carolina and Georgia, and even of Arkansas and Tennessee.

The amendment of Mr. Walker was put and lost.

Mr. Marshall, of Mississippi, offered a substitute that a committee of seven, to be appointed by the president, should

select a place and appoint a time for the next meeting of this convention.

On motion of Mr. Howard, of Alabama, the whole subject was laid on the table subject to call.

Mr. Todd, of New Orleans, offered a resolution that the proceedings of the convention be printed in pamphlet form.

The printing is to be done under the direction of the secretaries of the convention. The resolution was passed.

Mr. Pike, of Arkansas, moved that a committee of ways and means, consisting of three members, be appointed by the president, to raise the means to pay for the printing, which was adopted.

The president then announced the following committee to wait upon the legislature of Louisiana, and obtain a charter for the Pacific railroad: Albert Pike, of Arkansas; Judge Overton, of Louisiana; Dr. Young, of Louisiana; Hon. Emile La Sere, of Louisiana; and Col. M. T. Johnson, of Texas.

The president also appointed Messrs. Pike, Dolbear, and Gordon, as a committee of ways and means.

Mr. Pike offered the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the scholars, the enlightened merchants, and the men of science and learning in the southern and southwestern States, are respectfully invited by this convention to prepare and lay before it, at its next sitting, papers and memoirs, statistical, scientific, or otherwise, germane to the objects and purposes of the convention, and referring to the subjects which have engaged its attention, to be published as a portion of the transactions of the convention.

Mr. Jennings, of Louisiana, offered a resolution commending the report of the sanitary commission, appointed by this city in 1853, to the attentive perusal of the cities and towns of the south, which have been afflicted with yellow fever.

SIXTH Day.—The convention met at noon.

On motion, the calling of the roll and reading of the journal were dispensed with.

Mr. C. C. Lathrop, the secretary, announced the arrival of Mr. C. G. Baylor, editor of the Cotton Plant, at Washington city, and moved that he be permitted to address the convention.

Judge Walker suggested that as the attendance was slim, Mr. Baylor should reserve his speech for a more proper time, and that the convention proceed with routine business.

Mr. Baylor stated that his object was not to address an audience, but to offer simply a resolution for the consideration of the convention.

The resolution of Mr. DeCordova, in reference to a treaty with Spain and Mexico, and of Mr. Estes, asking Congress to

reduce the tariff on coal, which had been reported back by the general committee, were taken up and adopted.

A motion being made to reconsider the action of Saturday in reference to the printing of the proceedings of the convention,

Mr. Dolbear, from the committee of ways and means, appointed for that purpose, stated that all the expenses of printing the proceedings would be defrayed by the city of New Orleans.

Dr Barton, of Louisiana, offered the following preamble and resolutions, which were adopted :

Whereas, it is of incalculable importance to our common country, and to the southern and western States particularly, that the position pointed out by nature and improved by man, as the great depot most convenient and accessible to all, at all seasons of the year, should have removed the only impediment to that free intercourse which consists in an improvement in her sanitary condition. And whereas, to the site of the city of New Orleans converges most of the great rivers of the country, and is about being made a centre of a system of railroads still more extending her sphere of usefulness, placed, as she is, in the estuary of that magnificent stream whose tributaries, susceptible of navigation, is the natural and most convenient outlet and mart of the largest and most fertile valley in the world, the richest portion of our common country. And whereas, it is well known that nature makes no great location for a large city without some compensating disadvantages, her unequalled convenience for commercial purposes in the sale and exchange of the great mass of the productions of our common country and of the world, is met by influences on her visitors and immigrants in a sanitary point of view which materially impairs her usefulness to all. And whereas, it has been demonstrated by the most scientific and experienced of her faculty, to the entire satisfaction of practical men, that the insalubrity of this city, caused by her epidemics, is entirely under the control of sanitary measures, which, when completed, would enable her to compete in that respect with any of the great marts of commerce of our country, the entire probability of which is most satisfactorily shown by reference to the condition of the rural districts around us, (as exhibited by the mortuary returns of the late United States census,) which will compare favorably with those of any section of our country. That whereas, with the restoration of her sanitary condition, New Orleans presents a climate unsurpassed, at all seasons, for all the purposes of business or recreation—neither oppressed by summer's extreme heat nor inconvenienced by winter's cold, which every one of her rivals is afflicted with; that, as it is important for the interest of the southern and southwestern States to have their great central mart as healthy as it is convenient and indispensable for these States.

And whereas, New Orleans has spent for the actual and contemplated citizens of the said States, through her eleemosynary institutions, more than \$2,000,000—as can be shown by their records—when, far from their homes, they were stricken down by sickness and misfortune, constituting a strong bond of union, of feeling, of interest and of destiny; and whereas, had she expended this large sum on her sanitary condition, she would now defy all rivalry; but the calls of humanity silence the voice of interest; and whereas, now, crippled as she has been by repeated recurrences of these clearly removable calamities of pestilence, and compelled, as she has been, to spend most of her vast resources for the conveniences and advancement of commerce, for the improvement of her wharves for the reception and transmission of goods to and from the interior, and for pavements, most of which are for the benefit of her sister States—that, in fact, she has been made a great factorage of, mainly for their use and benefit—these have all involved her in heavy responsibilities, which hang upon her efforts and prosperity as a great incubus, from which she has long been endeavoring to extricate herself, and therefore she is entitled to the sympathy and co-operation of her sister States, represented in this convention, to aid in extricating her from her embarrassment; and, as the amelioration of her sanitary condition, in which

they are nearly as much interested as she is, is alone required to accomplish all the purposes expected or desired of her position, and as the government of our common country has many millions of acres of public lands intended, or remaining as a reserved fund, for the great wants and purposes of our people, it is hereby

Resolved, as the unanimous sense of this convention, that the government of the United States could not more appropriately grant 2,000,000 acres of the public domain than for the great and patriotic purpose of restoring one of her most important cities to salubrity.

Resolved, That the Senators and Representatives of our several States in the Congress of the United States be requested to co-operate in procuring from the said government the grant of land aforesaid, on the express condition that the proceeds of the sale thereof be appropriated solely to the amelioration of her sanitary condition, through the executive councils of the city.

Resolved, That a committee of three delegates of this convention be now appointed, whose duty it is hereby made to carry out the sense of this convention.

Attorney General Isaac N. Morse, of New Orleans, offered the following preamble and resolutions, which he accompanied by an explanatory address :

Whereas, one of the objects of this convention is to obtain valuable and useful information, therefore be it

Resolved, That the Representatives and Senators of the States represented in this convention be respectfully requested to procure, from the proper departments in Washington, the cost of the several custom-houses in the United States, the number of persons employed, and the expense of collecting the annual revenue.

Resolved, That they be further requested to inquire into the propriety of substituting, for the present method of collecting the revenue, direct taxation, and the propriety of abolishing the whole system of custom-houses and import duties.

General M. desired to make a few remarks. He thought a legitimate object of this convention was to obtain correct commercial information, not only with regard to the southern States, but with regard to the whole of this Union. He spoke of the prejudice existing against direct taxation. It had been thought to be more agreeable to make men contribute to the support of general government indirectly. He thought he could show with a very few words that the present duties on imports compelled the man who is least able to pay the most. Of the man who had been fortunate and accumulated an amount of ten thousand dollars, government demanded one dollar for the support of the army, the navy, and the judiciary, which is to protect his property. Of the man who amassed a fortune of twenty thousand dollars, government required two dollars. Now, all this seemed perfectly fair and honest. John Jacob Astor, the distinguished millionaire, possessed a fortune of twenty or thirty millions, and William Gray was owner of ninety sail of square rigged vessels. Now, to protect the property of these gentlemen, the army and navy of the United States were sent to distant seas. In return for this they actually paid nothing into the public treasury. It is true, a tax was laid upon sugar, upon English broadcloths, &c.; but it is also known that for the last twenty years of John Jacob Astor's life he consumed none of these articles. He lived prin-

cipally upon milk, and absolutely did not contribute as much to the expense of the general government as a man in Minnesota or Nebraska who kept a cow, ox, and horse. Now, in return, what does this man who resides in the interior want with army or navy? A foreign foe cannot trouble him; and yet he contributes more to the support of government than the man who possesses millions.

He thought it perfectly fair and honest for a man to contribute to the maintenance of government; and at the same time the people had a perfect right to inquire how the government funds were expended. He would like to know how many millions were being expended on the custom-house here.

Nothing could be gained by taxing foreign imports. The addition was immediately made upon the articles on which the duties are imposed. An English or New Orleans merchant buys flour at six dollars per barrel, ships to Cuba, and a duty is laid upon it, which advances the price to ten dollars. He ships to New Orleans, pays another duty and advances the price to nineteen or twenty dollars. Now who pays this duty? The citizens of New Orleans. Here was a subject which intelligent men should think of. He had heard men talk of the sword leaping from the scabbard against direct taxation. It remains to be seen whether the liberality of the convention would aid him in obtaining information of government at Washington as to the amount we have invested in the custom-house. He had been informed that it cost near thirty-three per cent. to collect the revenue of the United States. He proposed to avoid this vast expenditure by direct taxation. He wanted all duty to be removed. The people wanted railroads, they wanted iron. The duty on iron is thirty per cent. Remove this duty and it can be obtained from England for less than in the United States. He wished to make the port of New Orleans free; to let the produce of the world come here and make this the greatest exchange market in the world. Ships of the world will come here with their produce when they are exempt from a duty of thirty to forty and eighty per cent. At our next census the United States will number thirty-six millions of people. Thirty-six millions economically expended will be sufficient to defray the expenses of this government. In conclusion, he asked most respectfully, that these resolutions be adopted in order that they might know what the collecting of the revenue cost. His remarks were very attentively listened to, and he was highly applauded on taking his seat.

Mr. Wilkinson made a few remarks in reply. He hoped

the resolution would not pass. He thought there was too great a disposition to tax property holders. If you want to build a railroad or establish a line of steamships you tax people who have property. He alluded to the fact that two taxes were assessed—a property tax and another called a poll tax. This was imposed upon those who are supposed to have no property. There is a great portion of this class who pay no tax whatever. He thought the Attorney General was personally interested in the repeal of import duties, and he proceeded to support his argument by a personal allusion to that functionary and his family—inferring that he wished to escape the payment of duties upon champagne, broad-cloths, silks, laces, &c.

Dr. Wilkinson, of Plaquemines, spoke in opposition to the resolutions, and moved that they be laid on the table.

Judge John C. Larue, of New Orleans, urged upon the convention the importance of them, and moved that they be laid over, to be taken up by preference at the next meeting of the convention. The motion was carried.

Mr. N. B. Jennings' resolution, asking the legislatures of the southern States to repeal all usury laws, and permit individuals and corporations to deal in money as they please, was taken up.

Judge Walker moved to amend it by striking out the words "and corporations."

Captain Albert Pike thought it would be better to postpone action upon such an important matter till the next session of the convention.

The president coincided with Captain Pike.

Mr. Jennings consented that the matter be postponed, and moved the appointment of a special committee of three to consider and report upon the subject at the next convention. The motion was carried.

Mr. C. G. Baylor, of Washington, then rose and read the following resolutions :

Resolved, That C. G. Baylor be allowed to incorporate his special report in the proceedings of this convention to be published with them.

Resolved, That the president of this convention appoint a committee of five, a majority at least of whom shall be cotton-growers, to act as a committee of correspondence between the planters of the south and the manufacturers of Europe, in regard to the cotton interest ; that said committee can fix upon the point to be the central point of its correspondence, and that the information thus obtained be laid before this convention at its next meeting, or, if deemed by the committee and president of this convention sufficiently important, before a special Convention of cotton-growers, called together for that purpose.

Mr. Baylor remarked that his object in offering this resolution was to test a theory which has been known as direct trade, and for many years has received much discussion. His object

was to put the cotton-growers of the United States in direct correspondence with the cotton manufacturing interests of Europe. He remarked that Liverpool merchants had entire control of the cotton trade; that cotton planters were mere hewers of wood—overseers of that great estate which was managed by others. His object was to show that if cotton planters would come forward and put themselves in correspondence with the cotton interests of Europe, they would certainly respond to them and heartily co-operate with them for the purpose of breaking up Liverpool monopoly. I want to see a time and a company of men engage in this business who have got individual wealth and personal standing to vouch for whatever they undertake. What will be the result? All I ask of the convention is the passage of this resolution, and to appoint a committee. There are those here who are interested in the cotton business. England is not a consumer of cotton; she is only a reproducer. Labor is cheaper on the continent than in England; population on the continent of Europe is greater than England. England is only a speculator. She ships annually more than thirty-five millions in cotton. By means of her capital and organization she controls the great crop of America. What does she do with it? It requires forty out of every hundred bales of cotton to take it to Liverpool and sell it. What is the effect of that monopoly? The result is, the Liverpool merchants control the price of cotton. We are dependent upon her alone. You are demanded to break up that monopoly. Russia and Turkey go to war. It touches no part of America, but England chooses to engage in the war, and plunges all Europe in a war with her. What is the effect on the price of cotton? It was this year and last forty millions, simply because England involves herself in eastern war. It has been urged that the establishment of direct communication with the manufacturing interests of Europe would injure the commercial prosperity of New Orleans. So far from that being the case it would have a tendency to build it up. If a depot for cotton were established on the continent and the Liverpool monopoly broken up, would that injure the commercial prosperity in New Orleans? Not at all; it would only promote it.

The secretary then read the names of the following gentlemen as appointed upon committees:

On Mr. Jennings' anti-usury resolutions—Messrs. Jennings, Lathrop, and Pike.

On Dr. Barton's sanitary resolutions—Messrs. Barton, N. B. Benedict, and Gerard Stith.

On southern education and southern school books—C. R. Marshall, of Mississippi; D. F. Kenner, of Louisiana; M. T. Johnson, of Texas; J. S. Preston, of South Carolina; H. W. Hilliard, of Alabama; B. Manley, of Virginia; Ahbury Hill, of Georgia.

On motion, the convention then adjourned to 7 o'clock in the evening.

EVENING SESSION.—The convention met pursuant to adjournment. The resolutions offered by Attorney General Morse during the morning session, in reference to the abolishing of custom-houses and import duties, were taken up, and as Judge Larue, who was expected to make an address in favor of them, was absent, they were, on motion of Mr. Jennings, laid on the table subject to call.

Judge Walker offered the following resolution, which was adopted:

Resolved, That a committee of three members of this convention be appointed by the chair to address memorials to the legislatures of the southern and southwestern States, urging the adoption of a uniform commercial code by which trade will be facilitated and the rights of the citizens of the several States be placed on an equal and uniform basis.

Rev. C. K. Marshall offered the following, which was adopted:

Resolved, That the acting president of this convention be requested to appoint a committee of seven gentlemen, whose duty it shall be to fix upon the time and place for the next meeting of this body, and publish the same in the journals and newspapers for the information of the people, and the said president shall be chairman of the committee.

Mr. John A. Watkins's resolutions, asking the legislatures of Mississippi, Tennessee, and Kentucky to aid in building the Jackson railroad to some point on the Ohio river, were taken up and adopted.

Mr. Howard, of Alabama, moved that the chairman of the committee on quarantine be requested to prepare a copy of the report of the committee for publication with the proceedings of the convention. Carried.

Mr. Howard offered resolutions tendering the thanks of the convention to the president and secretaries for the able manner in which they have performed their duties; to the mayor of the city for the use of the hall; to the newspaper reporters and publishers for giving the proceedings proper publicity; to Mr. Campbell, the marshal; and to various other persons for courtesies shown to the convention. They were adopted unanimously.

Mr. Jennings made a few remarks on the subject of New Orleans hospitality, concerning which a misunderstanding had existed between two distinguished members of the convention. He hoped that the delegates would depart from New Orleans in a spirit of amity and good feeling.

Mr. Dolbear stated that any want of completeness in the arrangements connected with the convention must be attributed to the unfortunate fire which destroyed the Mechanics' Institute, the finest building of the kind in the south, which had been generously tendered to the city for the use of the convention, and where every preparation had been made to receive the convention in a fitting manner.

Judge Larue having entered, Mr. Morse's resolutions were taken up and read. The Judge then took the stand and addressed the convention.

Mr. Lathrop moved that the resolutions be laid on the table.

Dr. Hyams, of Alexandria, was in favor of inquiry upon the subject, but not of free trade.

Mr. Lathrop then addressed the convention in strong language, renewing his motion to lay the resolutions on the table.

The president, Mr. Coleman, was opposed to the introduction of such a matter before the convention as too political in its character. The free trade question had been thoroughly discussed long ago in its legitimate sphere, and it was rather improper to revive it at this late day in this commercial convention.

Mr. Howard, of Alabama, thought the subject worthy of the serious consideration of this or any other convention. He would vote to lay the resolutions on the

table, not because he was in any way opposed to them, but because they were introduced at such a late stage of the proceedings.

A vote was then taken, and the resolutions laid on the table; Judge Larue alone voting in the negative.

The resolution of Saturday, fixing Tuesday as the day for the adjournment of the convention, was rescinded.

On motion, the convention then adjourned, subject to the call of the committee of arrangements for its next session.

The President subsequently appointed the following gentlemen on the committee of arrangements:

N. D. Coleman, of Mississippi; C. R. Marshall, of Mississippi; M. T. Johnson, of Texas; Wm. C. Dawson, of Georgia; Jas. Lyons, of Virginia; W. B. H. Howard, of Alabama; Leslie Coombs, of Kentucky; and John L. Lewis, of Louisiana.

Judge Walker, Judge Slidell, and Attorney General Morse, were appointed on the committee called for by Judge Walker's resolution.

Upon the committee called for by Dr. Barton's resolutions, the following gentlemen were appointed:

Dr. Barton, chairman; and Dr. A. F. Axson, of Louisiana; Dr. Ashbell Smith and Dr. S. K. Jennings, of Texas; Hon. Solon Borland and G. Payton, of Arkansas; F. A. W. Davis and T. J. Harper, of Mississippi; Dr. Levert and Dr. Hamilton, of Alabama; Dr. J. P. Scriven and M. S. Cohen, of Georgia; Dr. N. S. Baldwin and W. D. Mosely, of Florida; Gen. J. Winslow and J. H. Gibbon, of North Carolina; Dr. A. P. Hayne and Dr. King, of South Carolina; Prof. J. B. Lindsay and Prof. —, of Tennessee; Rev. J. Miller and Lawrence Young, of Kentucky; Dr. George Engelman and L. M. Kennett, of Missouri; S. P. Leake and C. A. Rose, of Virginia; Dr. Smith and Dr. Martin, of Maryland.

DANISH SOUND DUTIES.

It will be remembered that the President, in his last annual message referred to the onerous nature of these duties, imposed without legal right by Denmark, on the commence of the world, and recommended that the United States give notice of their intention no longer to submit to them. We have from time to time referred to this subject in the Review. It will be seen by the following what action other governments are taking.

According to the reports of the Treasury Department of Denmark on the finances of that State, the actual receipts into the Danish treasury from the sound dues, the sound light-money, and the sound fees, for the year 1830—1849, were as follows:

	Rix dollars.		Rix dollars.
1830.....	2,107,000	1840.....	2,401,000
1831.....	1,966,000	1841.....	2,258,000
1832.....	2,210,000	1842.....	2,076,000
1833.....	2,090,000	1843.....	2,294,000
1834.....	1,890,000	1844.....	2,422,000
1835.....	1,910,000	1845.....	2,361,000
1836.....	2,087,000	1846.....	2,161,000
1837.....	2,203,000	1847.....	2,531,000
1838.....	2,326,000	1848.....	2,250,000
1839.....	2,417,000	1849.....	2,150,000

These sums do not include the amount of the by-charges to be paid in passing the sound; as, for instance, pilotage, ferry

money, commissions on clearance, &c., and which may be estimated to at least 500,000 rix dollars a year.

The reports of the Danish finances for the years 1850 to 1854, are not before us; but the estimates of the receipts from the sound dues, as submitted by the Danish Treasury Department to the legislature of the kingdom, show the following sums, which, no doubt, have, as in former years, been much surpassed by the actual receipts:

	<i>Rix dollars.</i>
1850.....	2,340,358
1851.....	2,365,000
1852.....	2,399,040
1853.....	2,399,350

The "*Rigsdags Tiende*," (the Congressional Globe of Denmark,) frightened, as it appears, by the President's message of December 4th last, mentioned, a short while ago, that the receipts from the Sound dues for the fiscal year ending the 31st ult. would scarcely amount to 1,522,901 rix dollars, and those for the year 1855-'56 could not be well estimated to more than 2,160,000 rix dollars—the eastern war and the blockade of the Russian ports in the Baltic having a very bad influence upon the commerce and navigation through the Sound. It is obvious that Denmark deems it prudent to have her exactions upon the commerce of the whole world appear as small as possible.

The amount of Sound dues paid for American vessels and cargoes is not known. The number of American vessels passing through the Sound during the last year was as follows:

1849.....	121
1850.....	106
1851.....	135
1852.....	76
1853.....	96
1854.....	63

This falling off can scarcely surprise, considering that our principal staple articles are—contrary to the old tariff of Christianopol, (13th August, 1645,) which takes one per cent. *ad valorem* as its basis—subject to the most oppressing duties in the Sound. Cotton pays 3 a 4 per cent.; rice, 4 per cent.; tobacco, even 6 per cent. *ad valorem*.

We translate the following from the Cologne Gazette of the 27th March, 1855:

BERLIN, March 25, 1855.

The representative "Von Sanger" had presented some time ago to the Second Chamber the following resolution for the abolition of the sound dues:

"With regard to the commercial interests of the country,

the chamber declares it necessary and urgent that decisive measures be adopted by the royal government for the superseding of the Sound dues."

This resolution was referred to the committee on finance and tolls, and that on commerce and industry.

The committees considered this subject during several sessions, and dwelled on the following questions:

1. Whether any right supported by public treaties could be opposed to the resolution.

2. Whether and which interests of Prussia urgently demanded the abolition of the sound dues.

As for the first question, although the committees did not claim a full competency to decide that question, they believed it could be admitted without contradiction that Denmark does not possess any right or legal claim to the sovereignty over the Sound and the Belts, which right must be positively denied, as no nation has ever recognised such sovereignty.

In regard to the second question, the committees refer to the official statistical statements, showing, as clear as possible, the interests of Prussia in this question, and the great injury caused to Prussian commerce, as alluded to in the resolution.

According to these statements, there had passed the Sound, for instance, during the year 1853 3,463 Prussian ships, of which 2,926 were loaded, and in ballast 537.

On an average, the Sound dues for each loaded ship were 37 Prussian thalers; for each ship in ballast 33½ do.

The amount of dues for clearing these ships through the Sound in 1853 has been (thalers)..... 126,252

To which must be added the loss of time for clearing, which, on an average, takes one day, and may be valued to 50 thalers for each ship..... 173,150

The whole expenses having been..... 199,402

After having given the statistical statements relating to the Sound dues, the committees conclude with the following *résumé*:

"The Sound dues is an intolerable tribute, contrary to the laws of nations, and oppressive to all commerce and navigation to and from the Baltic by most absurd and unjust taxes."

On the general debate about the said resolution the commissioners of the government declared:

"That the royal government fully agreed that the Sound dues were very injurious to the general commerce in the Baltic, and particularly to Prussian navigation; that, in con-

formity with the resolution presented by Mr. Von Sanger, it admits the urgent necessity of removing the existing evil as much as possible, and, as the government has constantly been active for the removal of the difficulties opposed to the abolition of the Sound dues, as far as political circumstances had admitted, it would also, without a request from the Chambers, continue its efforts to the same object; but that no decisive measure could be expected for the present, although Prussia had never recognised the right of sovereignty of Denmark for levying the Sound dues."

The committees thereupon did not agree with the resolution of Mr. Von Sanger, but they unanimously recommended to the Chamber the following resolution:

"That the Chamber in full understanding with the royal government, recognises the injurious effects caused by the Sound dues to the commerce and navigation of Prussia, and expects that government, after the explanations it had given on the subject, will lose no proper opportunity to effect the abolition of these dues."

After this resolution the committees passed over a petition referred to them from the Board of Commerce of Breslau, praying that the Chamber should exert itself for the abolition of the Sound dues, and all other undue extra expenses connected with it, and that no indemnity should be paid to Denmark for renouncing the said impositions.

ANTIQUITY OF BRITISH COMMERCE.

The antiquity of the trade of any nation is always coeval with that of its history; and although historians have paid less attention to this part of every nation's history than they ought, in most cases, even, omitting it altogether, yet it must not thence be inferred that their silence on the subject of trade is any evidence that it had no existence. No historian is fit to write the history of a country who cannot write the history of its trade; for therein lies the best evidence of the character and extent of a nation's civilization and progress. There was an old book printed in 1684, called the Merchant's Daily Companion, which contains the following passages regarding ancient British commerce:

"Britain has ever been famous for its trade and commerce. Before the conquest of the Romans here, the merchants thereof were glorious for their traffic with the Phœnicians, and Edgar, King thereof, every year, set forth to protect its trade three Spanish squadrons of ships, and imposed taxes upon every

vessel that passed the British seas to support its charges ; but how since it hath advanced in trade (as the images of great things are best seen contracted into small glasses) it is well becoming our most grave and sober thoughts. In Henry the Eighth's time, the custom's did not amount to £10,000 per annum, and in Elizabeth's time but to £45,000; but since, by the indulgence of its subjects, the duties accruing to his majesty do amount to £600,000 annually. And indeed trade is the true and intrinsic interest of Britain, without which it cannot subsist; and an island without traffic, it is but a great prison. It is the foreign trade that is the main sheet anchor of us islanders, without which the genius of all our useful studies which renders men famous and renowned, would make them useless and insignificant to the public."

The most interesting matter in this book, to the general reader, is the writer's account of the rise of the various mercantile companies of Great Britain. He says :

"The most ancient of these companies is that of the Merchant's Adventurers of England, who began in the reign of Edward I, in 1326. They obtained privileges of John to establish themselves in the city of Antwerp. Through this company, clothmakers went from Flanders to establish manufactories of woollens in England. The next company was the Fellowship of the English Merchants for discovery of new trades, commonly called the Muscovy Company. It began in the beginning of the reign of Phillip and Mary, upon the discovery of islands to the north of England. The next company was the Levant, or Turkish Company, and then came up the famous East India Company, in the reign of Elizabeth, and commanded the trade of India, Persia and Arabia. After that come the Eastland Company in the 21st year of Elizabeth in 1579, which commanded the trade of Norway, Sweedeland, Poland, and the territories of the same kingdoms.

The next company was that of the Royal Adventurers of England trading in Africa, incorporated in the 14th year of the reign of Charles II. Among the imports to England are mentioned gold, elephant's teeth, with other good commodities, 'besides great quantities of negroes for the supply of his Majesty's American plantations, to the great advantage of the inhabitants, as well as to the said company; and besides the supply of 3,000 negroes yearly to the Spaniards for the supply of their West India trade.' These were all the incorporated trading companies up to 1684."

INTERNAL TRANSPORTATION AND TRAVEL.

We cannot do justice to the magnitude and importance of this subject without devoting much space to it. A writer in one of our exchanges thus briefly comments upon it:

"Few persons who have not taken the trouble to examine the statistics, and submit the subject to the scrutiny of figures, have a correct appreciation of the magnitude of the interest engaged in conducting the internal travel of this wide-spread nation. We have heard much talk of the cotton interest, the farming interest, the manufacturing interest, and various other interests, but they are small compared with this vast and rapidly augmenting transportation interest. It is the growth of comparatively few years, but has attained herculean proportions. If we begin the comparison by ascertaining the investment of capital, we find internal transportation about, if not at, the head of the list. We estimate the capital invested in this department of industry at one thousand millions of dollars. It is divided thus:

Railroads and their machinery.....	\$600,000,000
Canals.....	100,000,000
Steamboats.....	70,000,000
Vessels in the coasting trade.....	130,000,000
Turnpikes, stages, wagons, and canal boats...	100,000,000
Total.....	<u>1,000,000,000</u>

"The value of all improved farms in the cotton-growing States of Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, South Carolina, Florida, and Tennessee, in the year 1830, amounted to about \$512,000,000. The capital invested in growing cotton is therefore much less than that invested in internal transportation. It will be perceived that we do not include in the comparison the value of the slaves employed in producing the cotton. By a similar course of calculation, it may be shown that the capital invested in the agents of transportation exceeds that of any one interest of production taken separately. The fact is, that it is nearly one-third the whole value of all the farms in the United States.

"The gross annual product of all the agencies for internal transportation we estimated at \$120,000,000, which exceeds the whole cotton crop of last year by about twenty millions of dollars. It is more than double the annual product of gold in California; it is nearly double the value of all our agricultural exports for the last year, and ten times the amount of exports of manufactured articles.

"One of the great advantages conferred on the country by this vast interest is the employment it affords to productive industry in the constant and increasing demand created for machinery of transport. Thus, on the fifteen thousand miles of railroad now in operation there are in use six thousand locomotives, and fifteen hundred steam-engines are in use on boats. The engines on boats cost.....\$12,000,000
The locomotives cost..... 54,000,000

Total..... 66,000,000

It will require for renewals each year—

Locomotives..... 600
Locomotives for increase of business..... 60

Total locomotives to be built per year..... 660

"These locomotives will cost \$5,950,000. It will require 165 new engines every year for steamboats, which will cost \$1,320,000, making together \$7,260,000 as the amount of the annual demand for steamboat engines and locomotives.

"There are on the fifteen thousand miles of railroad about one million seven hundred and twenty-five thousand tons of iron rails, &c. We estimate that these rails must be renewed in fifteen years. There will be required, then, one hundred and fifteen thousand tons of railroad iron each year for renewals, which, at \$60 per ton, makes \$6,900,000."

SHIP CANAL ACROSS THE ISTHMUS OF SUEZ.

We find in the *New York Journal of Commerce* an exceedingly valuable and interesting letter from its Asiatic correspondent on the subject of the so long talked of canal across the Isthmus of Suez. We transfer it entire to our pages as the best letter that has ever been written on the subject. The writer has evidently studied with more than usual care the project in question, and his observations are worthy of attention.

BEIRUT, (SYRIA,) March 5, 1855.

The number of American travellers to Egypt and Palestine surprises me; nor the number more than the facility and safety with which this once-in-a-life pilgrimage is performed. Almost every steamer brings or else returns a party, whose intelligence, education, good morals, and gentlemanly bearing command the respect of foreigners and make an exiled American proud of his country and his countrymen. Hon. George

Folsom, late chargé d'affaires at the Hague, recently spent a few days in this city on his return from Egypt and the Holy Land. He assures me that he counted *twelve* boats on the Nile with the "stars and stripes" flying, which, probably, were not more than one-half the number chartered and filled with our countrymen.

There were other gentlemen of New York in the same party, some of whom are connected with your merchant princes, and others of like social position, while all are men of intelligence and moral worth. It is but just, however, that I should be permitted to signalize Mr. Folsom for a generous and unselfish deed, which, secret as it was, deserves to be made known as an incentive and example for others. He met with a poor American family in Jerusalem which had come out to join a colony formed in America some years since to teach the natives of Palestine agriculture and the mechanic arts. The enterprise proved a failure, however well intended; and the family to which I refer, being reduced to poverty and desirous of returning home, Mr. Folsom, without intimating his purpose or exacting even a promise of repayment, committed \$150 to my hands to meet the expenses of their passage to Boston.

The revived project of a canal across the Isthmus of Suez, to unite the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, at present occupies the attention of the better informed classes in this orient world, and of which your readers may be glad to be informed. M. Lesseps, who directs the movement, is said to be connected with the family of Louis Napoleon, a circumstance which may materially aid him in the projected work. From a memorial he presented to the viceroy of Egypt, a short time since, and from the information communicated by American travellers just returned, as well as other sources, I gather the following statements and facts:

The uniting of the Red sea with the Mediterranean is no new project. The vast utility of the measure arrested the attention of all the great men who have reigned in Egypt or passed through it—as Sesostris, Alexander the Great, Cæsar, the Arab conqueror Amrou, Napoleon, and Mohammed Ali, the former energetic but oppressive viceroy of Egypt, whom the country remembers with admiration for his sagacity and public enterprises, but with dread for his severity, his iron will, and his avarice and extortion.

Nor is the uniting of the two seas by a navigable canal across the Isthmus of Suez a mere figment of fancy. The two seas have already been united and the feasibility been

proved by fact. A canal connecting the Nile with the Red sea existed for the period of one hundred years prior to the middle of the third century before the Christian era; a second was built, which was kept in use for more than 400 years after the reign of the first successors of Alexander; and a third was continued for a period of 130 years after the Arabian conquest. Napoleon, upon his arrival in Egypt, appointed a commission of engineers to inquire if it was possible to re-establish this ancient route of navigation; and when an answer in the affirmative was returned, at the moment of his departure from the country, he said in a few words: "The thing is grand, and one which at present I cannot accomplish; but the time will come, perhaps, when the Turkish government will find its preservation and its glory in the execution of the project."

M. de Lesseps says the time has arrived to realize the prediction of Napoleon. The construction of the canal would contribute above anything else to the conservation of the Ottoman empire, and demonstrate to those who proclaim its decline and ruin that it yet possesses a vigorous existence and is capable of adding a brilliant page to the history of the civilization of the world. The present war between Russia and the western powers, allied with Turkey, occurred because the passage from the Mediterranean to the Black Sea has such an importance that the European power which becomes the mistress of it will be able to control all others, and thus overthrow that balance of power which it is the interest of the whole world to preserve. But let a similar and more important position be established in another point of the Turkish empire; let Egypt be made the channel of the commerce of the world by the construction of a grand navigable canal across the Isthmus of Suez, and a defence will be created in the east which cannot be overturned or shaken; for all the great powers of Europe, seeing the danger from the passage coming into the possession of any one of them at some future day, would regard the necessity of preserving its neutrality as a question of the first importance. Turkey, therefore, and all the European kingdoms have a deep interest in the construction of the canal.

As to the expense, M. de Lesseps states that fifty years ago M. Lepere calculated that there would be required 2,000 laborers for four years, and from five to eight millions of dollars to complete the canal. He also came to the conclusion that it was possible to construct it in a straight line from Suez to the Mediterranean. M. Paulin Talabot, one of the three

distinguished engineers chosen ten years since by a company formed to investigate this matter, adopted the indirect route from Alexandria to Suez, making use of a barrage to cross the Nile. He estimated the entire expense at \$2,500,000 for the canal, and \$4,000,000 for the construction of a port and harbor at Suez. The two other engineers associated with him were Mr. Stephenson, of England, and Mr. Nagrelli, of Austria.

M. Linant Bey, who for thirty years has superintended the canal works of Egypt with signal ability, and who has made the union of the two seas by a canal the study of his life, proposes to cut the Isthmus in a line nearly straight and across the narrowest part, constructing also a great interior port in the basin of Lake Timsah, and making the passage from Pelusium, on the Mediterranean, and Suez, on the Red Sea, practicable to vessels of the largest size. Other eminent engineers who have had the superintendence of the fortifications of Alexandria, and that stupendous work the barrage of the Nile, undertaken by the late viceroy, Mehemet-Ali, and the bridges and roads of Egypt, concur in the opinion of the feasibility of the proposed canal and its immense utility.

A careful examination will determine which of the routes indicated will be the best; and, the enterprise being admitted as practicable, nothing remains but to make a choice. All parts of the enterprise, however difficult they may be, fail to frighten or discourage modern art; their success cannot be put in doubt. It is now a question of pecuniary means, which the spirit of enterprise and association will not fail satisfactorily to resolve, if the profits which must follow are in correspondence with the expense incurred. It is easy to demonstrate that the expense of the canal, even upon the largest calculation, cannot be out of proportion with the utility and the profits of this great work, which will shorten the distance between the principal countries of Europe and America and the Indies by more than one-half. This is made evident in the following table, prepared by M. Cardier, Professor of Geology:

	By the canal.	By the Atlantic.	Difference.
Constantinople, <i>Leagues</i>	1,800	6,100	4,300
Malta	2,062	5,800	3,788
Trieste	2,310	5,960	3,620
Marseilles.....	2,374	5,650	3,276
Cadiz.....	2,224	5,300	2,976
Lisbon.....	2,500	5,350	2,850
Havre.....	2,824	5,800	2,976
London.....	3,100	5,930	2,836
St. Petersburg.....	3,700	6,530	2,850
Liverpool.....	3,050	5,900	2,850
Bordeaux.....	2,800	5,650	2,850
Amsterdam.....	3,100	5,950	2,850
New York.....	3,761	6,200	2,439
New Orleans.....	3,721	6,450	2,726

In the sight of such figures all comments are useless. They show that all the nations of Europe, and even the United States of America, are equally interested in the opening of a canal through the Isthmus of Suez, as well as in the rigorous and inviolable neutrality of the passage. Mohammed-Ali-Said, the present Viceroy of Egypt, already perceives that there is no work to be executed which can compare with this in the grandeur and utility of its results. For his reign what a title of glory! For Egypt what an inexhaustable source of wealth! The names of the Kings of Egypt, who created the pyramids, those useless monuments of human pride, remain unknown, while the name of the prince who shall open this grand canal shall call down the blessings of posterity to the latest times. The pilgrimage to Mecca, secured for all future time and made easy for all Mussulmans; the mighty impulse given to steam navigation and long voyages; the countries which border upon the Red Sea and the Gulf of Persia; the eastern coast of Africa; India; the kingdoms of Siam, Cochin-China; Japan; the vast empire of China; the Philippine Islands, Australia, and that immense Archipelago to which the emigration of Europe is directed; all these brought within about 3,000 leagues of the basin of the Mediterranean and the north of Europe; these are the immediate results of a canal across the Isthmus of Suez.

It is estimated that at the present time *ten millions of tons* are every year carried round the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn, and that upon one-half only of this tonnage the commerce of the world would realize a saving of \$100,000,000 per annum if the ships were to go by the Gulf of Arabia. It is beyond doubt that the canal of Suez will give a very considerable increase to navigation; but, upon the calculation of three millions of tons only, there will be an annual revenue of \$6,000,000 by the imposition of a duty at \$2 per ton; a duty which could be lowered in proportion to the increased use of the canal.

The memorial to the Viceroy concludes with expressing the belief that an enterprise like this, so important for the future well-being of the world, will henceforth escape all opposition, and that the attempts to accomplish the object will be sustained by the universal sympathy and by the active and energetic co-operation of the enlightened men of all countries.

The Viceroy of Egypt, Mohammed-Ali-Said, upon receiving the memorial of M. Lesseps, of which we have given the substance, referred the matter to the Sublime Porte, and, having obtained its consent to the magnificent project, granted M.

Lesseps the power of forming a company for the construction of a canal from Suez to the Mediterranean of sufficient dimensions for the navigation of large vessels, with the construction also of one or two ports, as may be deemed the most advisable. The director or president of the company shall be nominated by the Egyptian government, and selected as often as possible from the stockholders the most interested in the enterprise. The charter of the company extends to ninety-nine years from the time of the opening of the canal, at the end of which period it shall revert to the government of Egypt, which shall enter upon the full possession of the canal, and enjoy all the rights and privileges of the company. All the work shall be executed at the exclusive expense of the company, to which, however, the government will make a donation of all the necessary lands not belonging to individuals, and shall receive fifteen per cent. of the nett income of the canal, the company seventy-five per cent., and the founders of the company ten per cent. The tariff of duties shall be agreed upon by the company and the Viceroy, and shall always be the same for all nations, no advantage being ever granted to any one of them.

American travellers of judgment and intelligence who have just returned from Egypt think the greatest difficulty in the construction of this work will be found in extending the canal into the two seas at a distance sufficient to obtain the depth of water demanded by large vessels, as on both sides of the Isthmus the water is very shallow, and the sands were increasing in quantity or shifting their position. One gentleman judges that the work must be carried about five miles into the sea. The projector of the enterprise, however, is full of confidence, and recently passed through this city, on his way to Constantinople, to consummate his arrangements with the Porte. From thence he will proceed to France and England to obtain subscriptions to the stock. The work *can be accomplished*, because it already *has been*, and the traces of the old canal remain to this very day, and were seen and examined near the Red sea by the distinguished American scholars and travellers, Rev. Drs. Robinson and Smith, some fifteen years ago, and may be found described in their "Researches in Arabia Petrea and Palestine." It may not be achieved at once, but the present movement may awaken thought and lead to a happy and glorious result when the din of war shall cease to be heard in the north, and Europe and Turkey shall be free to spend their resources in cultivating the arts of peace. Pyramids and temples, and all the waste of human labor for ages

upon gigantic works in Egypt, cannot compare in utility with this enterprise, the completion of which will be the signal for the resurrection of the old world to new and better life.

TRADE—THE FIBROUS SUBSTANCES OF INDIA.

Trade, though it dates almost from the origin of society, is apparently only now commencing in earnest. There are not more than three or four trading nations—the Dutch, the English, and the Americans are the chief—but every nation is nearly equally capable of becoming a trading nation. Like an individual or a family, it cannot produce everything it needs by its own means, and the individuals composing it can best supply their wants by producing some particular articles, or parts of articles, and exchanging them for others. What is advantageous for individuals and families is advantageous for the whole of mankind. At what number of individuals or families are divisions of labor and exchange to stop? Nobody can assign the limit. No one can say where the advantages of exchange would cease. Every individual, every family, every zone or district of the earth has peculiarities, and those peculiarities, the basis of all exchange, make trade necessary everywhere equally for individuals and for nations.

The English are the greatest trading nation of the earth, but their trade has been nearly doubled in twenty years, is expanding year by year, and with all the countries of Asia, long as they have been known—whether we communicate with them by the Mediterranean or the Atlantic, the China and Indian seas—with the whole of America and with the vast countries of the Pacific, our trade is only in its infancy, and is obviously capable of rapid and indefinite expansion. Individuals and families comprised in other nations can naturally trade with one another as well as we can, and they have, in the advantages to be gained by trade, equally strong motives for trading, yet, at present, none of them trade equally with ourselves; and as our trade is increasing rapidly, while they are under the same influences to carry out division of labor as ourselves, and are probably destined to carry it as far, and trade as extensively as we trade, are we not justified in repeating that trade, though it have been partially known from the very origin of society, is only now commencing in earnest? We have brought a little tea from one place, sugar from another, tobacco from a third, cotton from a fourth, coffee from a fifth, and so on, as these varied productions became, as it were, forced on our notice or acceptance; but now, at the point to which we have been thus

carried, we have become sensible of the real advantages of trade, and are beginning scientifically to observe and inquire what in each and all countries is produced best and with least labor, and beginning to comprehend that it is the duty of the whole family of man to turn all the peculiarities of the earth to the common advantage. As in every other branch of human business, science is coming to the aid of impulse, and will help to increase the activity and extent of trade, accelerate its growth, and guide it right.

It must not, however, be inferred that those who are beginning to notice the great facts on which trade depends are the persons to carry it on, or direct those who are engaged in it. It has already lasted too long, extended too far, and embraced too many completely distinct political nations in its many arms, to permit the supposition that it depends on political contrivances, though statesmen too often interfere with it, hamper it, and derange it. It belongs, like the multiplication of the species, to the phenomena of nature, the laws of which we have to observe and obey, and cannot, without damage to ourselves, in the smallest degree contravene. It depends on division of labor, which is always extending and always bringing forward new phenomena, while State constitutions are derived from the past, and are often supposed to be perfect in proportion as they date further back. It depends on exchange and interchange, to which statesmanship, regulating a part of society, is generally opposed. Depending on exchange, the products to be exchanged must be equal, and no one species of production can be encouraged without preventing the equal production of some commodity to be exchanged for the favored commodity. States are constituted, theoretically at least, on the principle of protecting equally all their subjects; and to encourage any one art or species of industry, is to substitute for its natural reward a factitious and artificial reward for that particular species of industry, which in the end is sure to impoverish it, and to injure some other species of industry. Trade—depending on division of labor, on diversities of climate and soil, and on diversities of human beings, on things to be exchanged—is a great natural or social phenomenon, which has existed partially in all times and places, which was called peddling, and is now attracting scientific attention from embracing all nations and even prescribing the course of statesmen.

Believing that trade is in its infancy, we can only give our approbation to all who wish to promote it by making known the very different and varied productions—all perhaps useful—

of different countries. Dr. Forbes Royle, for example, who has previously done much to make known and bring into use the various products of India, has recently published a very elaborate work on "The Fibrous Plants of India," in which he describes many of the productions of that vast continent, and their applicability to the wants of man.* It is more especially devoted to those substances—such as hemp, flax, jute, coir—which are now particularly required, and gives a very elaborate description of the various plants of India which supply fibrous materials, the modes of preparing them, the extent to which they might be grown, the statistics of the present trade in them, and a great variety of useful information connected with these subjects. Nobody should either write or speak about the productive capabilities of Asia without consulting Dr. Royle's book; but it does not follow, because in India all these commodities can be produced, that it is wise and proper to encourage the production of them. On this point we differ very essentially from those who would direct English capital and industry to the cultivation of these fibrous substances in India for our markets. A man deeply in love with natural history is not necessarily a good political economist; and we may, therefore, doubt the policy, though recommended by Dr. Royle, of government interfering with production in India, while we condemn its interference with production in England, France, and the United States.

We do not pretend to define the duties of the Indian government to its subjects. Being absolute, patriarchal, the lord of the soil to a great extent, the owner of all its waters, the preserver of its castes, it may be bound, if it can, to promote the trade and increase the welfare of its many subjects or slaves. But all trade is exchange, and if not free and equal, one of the parties to it suffers from it, and then it is sure to languish, if not to die. Chambers of Commerce may be desirous of promoting the trade by which their members individually thrive, and may make recommendations, and recommend bounties; but unless they can bring together two parties to the exchange, and not only entice a product into existence, but also entice a buyer for it into existence, or effect the creations of two products, the exchange cannot take place, or it will be unequal or disadvantageous. What Chambers of Commerce have attempted to do, and what the East India Company have done, is no criterion of what a government or

*The Fibrous Plants of India fitted for cordage, clothing, and paper; with an account of the cultivation and preparation of flax, hemp, and their substitutes, by J. Forbes Royle, M. D., F. R. S. Smith, Elder & Co.

Chamber of Commerce ought to do. And when those who aspire to encourage the production of some one object, or two or three similar objects, in India or elsewhere, merely remember that to have a trade other objects of equal value must be provided to exchange for the objects the production of which they encourage, or they will be worthless, they will either undertake to regulate the production of all objects that are to be reciprocally exchanged, or they will give up the idea of encouraging the production of some pet objects for pet purposes, to find a reward for black or white pets.

The history of commerce abounds in examples of the failure of schemes to encourage production, because those who set about them have looked only to the production of one article, without thinking of the production of the article to be exchanged for it, or having the means to influence it; and Dr. Royle's book supplies some additional instances. Persons should not, therefore, be censured or reproached, or supposed to be stupid or malicious, or to have some sinister interest, because they do not at once engage in the pursuits theoretical writers recommend. If the English merchants can take care of themselves, they may suppose that the inhabitants of Hindostan are endowed in their way with a means of accomplishing the same end. Theoretical gentlemen, who have made some observations or discoveries, should not be impatient with others who carry on their little traffic as their forefathers carried it on, and do not at once comprehend the value of some change recommended to them. The knowledge or the impulse which sets them to work must be a part of their own being, not the mere words of another; and till it be, it is idle to censure them for not using this product that one planter has sent home, or that product which another has cultivated at some expense, for their express use. It is not enough for a manufacturer or a dealer that some gentleman should recommend a plant for a particular purpose, or that some lady shall have carefully manipulated a thread from it or a whole web of cloth. Almost every peculiar fibrous material requires some peculiar manipulation, and before a manufacturer can think of using it he must be assured of an abundant supply. Hence, as the rule, he uses, in the first instance at least, some article extensively used in other countries for native purposes, though it may afterwards be cultivated, as his demand becomes extensive, chiefly for his use. It is not enough for a manufacturer, whether of paper or of cotton, to inform him that abundance of fibrous substances can be grown in India—that the climate and soil, and natural productions, all imply great abundance.

The manufacturer requires his capital for his own purposes, and he cannot divert it from his mill, when he wants rags or hemp, to encourage the natives of India to grow some substance that may answer his purpose, though it can scarcely be as cheap as the rags to which the paper maker gives all their value, and changes them from a nuisance into the most beautiful and varied of all the products of human ingenuity.

We are not exactly aware of what Dr. Royle means when he urges, in opposition to those who think it is not the business exactly of one man to find employment for another, or a government to find employment for its subjects, that "the objections to enriching one party at the expense of another was never thought of, when thousands of the weavers of Dacca were ruined at the same time that the manufacturers of cotton goods were enriched." At that time nobody could make such an objection. They were not injured by any government contrivance; they suffered, as ignorant and unskilful men have suffered in all ages, when they have come into contact with men of more knowledge and skill. If the ruin of the weavers of Dacca is to be attributed to English power, it should be properly ascribed to the conquest of the country, not to English manufacturers supplying the natives with cotton cloth cheaper than they could make it themselves. Whatever compensation may be due to the inhabitants of Hindostan from the India Company, they have none to claim at the hands of the English manufacturer and merchant, who have spread over India, as they have spread over the world, the advantages of our mechanical inventions. To object to those who do not now wish to foster a one-sided production that they were silent when the weavers of Dacca were ruined, is to be sentimental rather than scientific.—*London Economist*.

THE TRADE OF ST. LOUIS.

It is truly gratifying to one, born and raised in the west, to witness the vast amount of business now transacted in one of the most important of our western cities. We were truly astonished, on a visit to this place last week, to find it wearing so lively an appearance. We had supposed that on account of the short crops, and unprecedented scarcity of all agricultural products, that importers would do but a light business, country merchants purchase cautiously, and trade almost stagnate; but such is not the case. Producers are sanguine in their anticipations of the future, merchants rely upon the honesty and ultimate ability of their customers, and the importing merchants of the west are determined to build up a trade second to none in the world; consequently, busy as the St. Louis merchants have hitherto been, at this season of the year, this year the amount and extent of their custom is in advance of any that has preceded it. The business streets are almost blockaded with boxes, barrels, bales, and packages, much coming in, much, also, going out. It is interesting, also, to see the wide scope of country supplied from this market.—*Illinois Spectator*.

MANUFACTURES, MINING, AND INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

PRACTICAL RESULTS OF SOUTHERN MANUFACTURES.

The name of William Gregg, of South Carolina, has long been illustrious for the services which he has rendered to the South in the wide field of domestic industry and manufactures. He has demonstrated his positions and carried them into results. We thank him for an advance copy of his valuable report as president of the Graniteville Company, and hasten to give it to our readers entire. Its application will be as extensive as the south itself. Mr. Gregg reviews the history of the Graniteville company; indicates its successes and the causes which have contributed to them. He shows what are the necessities of success, and whence our failures have resulted. The paper is earnestly submitted to the consideration of the south.

In presenting you the Fifth Annual Report of our treasurer, a fit opportunity occurs for making a few remarks in relation to our past operations, the present condition of our property, and our future prospects. You are all aware that we commenced operations as manufacturers at a most unpropitious time; that we passed through a period of three years of unprecedented depression, during which millions of capital sunk by the New England spinners, while we were able to hold our position and take advantage of the first favorable change.

During the year 1852 our nett earnings were 8 per cent. In 1853 they reached $11\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and in 1854 they amounted to a fraction over 18 per cent., and would have exceeded 21 per cent. had our stock of cloth on hand been sold, or valued at its present current rate. It is almost indispensable to our trade in Charleston to have a full stock of goods on hand at the commencement of the year. On the first of January, 1853, we had no goods, and were not able during the whole spring to supply the Charleston trade, being obliged to disappoint our customers in Baltimore and other places. At the commencement of this year we had a full supply, but not what would be called a large stock in ordinary business seasons. To allow for any depreciation that might occur in the value of our cloth on hand, it was put in the inventory at \$12,000 less than its value, if sold at the present current rates. The surplus from

the earnings of 1853, together with that which has been created by the large profits of 1854 (after paying the last January dividend of \$18,000) leaves us the dividable sum of \$45,000. I propose out of this sum to declare an extra dividend of 12 per cent., to be paid in stock. After this division is made, it will be perceived by those who will enter into the calculation that we will have paid within a fraction of 7 per cent. on our entire capital from the time it was paid in, thus remunerating the stockholders for any loss of interest which was sustained during the erection of the establishment, and also for the two years of depression of 1850 and 1851. If the operations of the year 1855 prove to be as profitable as they were in 1854, and we have every reason thus far to anticipate even larger earnings, we shall, at the end of this year, have earned a sum, which added to that already divided, will make 9 per ct. on the capital from the time it was paid in, and I confidently look forward to the day (long before the Graniteville factory is materially depreciated by wear and tear) when its stockholders will be able to say that they have received, not only the interest on their money, but that the entire amount invested has been returned to them.

The only question that seems to arise about the propriety of dividing the surplus is—What is the condition of our property? My answer is, that our machinery has been kept in excellent order, as our handsome goods will show,—that everything connected with the water-power and factory is in a better condition than when we first commenced business. We have gradually removed wooden dams and waste-ways, substituting brick and stone laid in cement; most of which have been charged to current expenses. Some of our cottages are a little the worse for wear, but a few hundred dollars will make them as good as new. As to the general value of the property, I assure you I would be unwilling to undertake to erect such an establishment, finding everything, and deliver it over, for a sum exceeding its original cost by fifty thousand dollars. When it was built everything was cheap, now labor and everything else is dear. We have, during the last year, purchased \$8,000 worth of machinery, with a view of starting 30 more looms; this additional machinery will add nearly one-eighth to our productive power, and will not increase our current expenses, except for the pay of the hands to work it. With such profits as we made last year, it will more than pay for itself in twelve months. This brings us to the consideration of the importance of extending our works to the full extent of our water-power, which is certainly equivalent to

500 looms. We have our dams, canals, wheel-pits, and conducting pipes to carry water to three wheels, and with a very small additional expenditure, wheel power for that much machinery. Why then should we hesitate in expending a hundred thousand more, when it will almost double our income. Our picker-house is large enough for 15,000 spindles—the only new factory building required will be a one-story weave-house large enough to hold all the looms. I would recommend that the directors be authorized to issue new stock to the amount of \$240,000, which will raise our capital to \$600,000. This sum will complete the new works and give us an ample cash capital, in which we are now deficient.

Although our cash capital was \$98,000 on the first of January, there was an interest account against us for the past year of \$10,800, which shows that we were all the time largely indebted. Our cotton is purchased for cash. We pay cash for all our labor, while, on an average, four months elapse from the time the cotton is purchased until the goods are in the market; these again are frequently four months more on hand and are then sold on a credit of eight months; so that you will perceive our outlay is always a year or more in advance of our returns.

It may be thought, by such as have not reflected on the subject, that we should not advance our own interests in permitting new stockholders to come in and enjoy the advantages that our present position gives us. We have established a wide spread reputation which commands the trade of the whole south and southwest, as well as that of the merchants of New York, Philadelphia and Baltimore, who are all the time anxiously enquiring after our goods to supply their western customers. I think it, however, our policy, if our own stockholders are either not able or unwilling to take the stock, to allow other capitalists to come in, for it will certainly add greatly to the profits of the present capital invested, to extend our operations as far as our water-power will permit, which will not afford an overgrown establishment, or one which will be beyond the control and management of the faithful and skilful agents who now manage our business.

There is a prevailing opinion in the public mind, that the success of the Graniteville company is an accidental exception to the general rule; that its eminent success is alone owing to my skill and industry, and that so soon as I am taken from you your brilliant prospects will vanish, your affairs relapse, and the property become unproductive. This is a vital error and ought to be corrected, for it has a tendency to depreciate

the value of our stock. I am willing to take all the credit that is due me for judiciously locating and building up the establishment, and for its present organization; that is the important item on which the success or failure of a manufacturing establishment depends. With the perfection of our machinery, a good location, steady water-power, and general organization, any sensible business man can carry on your affairs successfully. I could select from among our stockholders many gentlemen who would, with a little practice, conduct our affairs quite as successfully as they have ever been conducted, and probably more so. The mercantile would be the best class to select from, for we have large mercantile operations constantly on hand. There is the purchase of cotton, and all other supplies, and from 250 to 400 thousand dollars worth of goods to dispose of. The labors of a manager are chiefly mental, and consist in the choice of agents and looking closely after them. This would be nothing more than a pleasant occupation to a successful retired merchant. In Massachusetts, lawyers not unfrequently occupy such positions, and they make capital agents. I have full confidence in the judgment of our stockholders to select a proper agent to fill my place, should I be taken away, or decline to fill the office. On the strength of that conviction, and as an evidence of my belief in the profitable character of our business, I am willing to take far more than my proportion of the new stock, and will put in \$20,000 to \$25,000 towards the extension, and I do it as a sure and profitable investment for my children.

There are misgivings in the public mind with regard to manufacturing at the south which ought to be removed, and I deem this a fit opportunity to enlighten, as far as I can, our own stockholders. The prevailing opinion is, that the first stockholders of a manufacturing establishment are doomed to almost certain failure, and that the proceeds of such an investment are destined to pass into second hands for but a fraction of the cost of the establishment erected. I must confess that there are abundant reasons for such an opinion, but I hope that the future will dispel all such misgivings against a branch of industry so important to the southern States. I think I can point out the principal cause of all the failures at the south, and can suggest a course which will secure future undertakings against the errors that have shipwrecked and ruined some, and seriously embarrassed others.

Our southern people, from the want of experience, are too apt to come to the conclusion that they can erect a manufactory for about half what a similar establishment would cost

in New-England. This is a fatal mistake. We want as good machinery as they use, and every thing as permanent. The advantages we possess in cheap water-power and building materials will not more than balance that which they have in facilities for making machinery and the saving of freight. But when a factory is erected and organized as it can and should be, our abundant supply of cheap labor, our mild climate, and above all, the raw material so cheap at our door, and a home market for our products, gives us, with good management, certain and large profits, while the cotton manufacturers of no other country can more than make a living.

Laying aside the good management of the business of a cotton factory, which is absolutely necessary anywhere, there are five prominent causes of failure at the south that will apply to every location, and which have been the means of sacrificing establishments in all countries, and have sunk millions for the New England people. The establishment of Lowell, in 1820, commenced a new era in the manufacture of cotton in the United States. The proprietors of that place enlightened all New England, and I may say the world, on the subject, and gave a new character to the business. The notion hitherto entertained that corporate companies could not succeed, vanished; and, although that branch of business is carried on in Massachusetts almost exclusively by corporate companies, I am not aware that there has been a single establishment which has been wound up and forced into the market for sale since 1828. The business, if conducted on a sufficiently large scale to secure skilful and able managers, involves so large a capital as to be far beyond the reach of any individual effort that will probably be made for many years at the south. This branch of industry must, therefore, be introduced and carried on by corporations; and I can only say to those who wish to form companies, follow our example, examine our establishment, look into its organization, go to New England where information may be obtained, and, above all things, avoid the errors that I am now about to point out. I will now state the five causes of failure or embarrassment:

The first is an injudicious selection of machinery, and of the kind of goods to be made.

The second is a lack of steady, efficient, and cheap motive power.

The third is an injudicious location.

The fourth is the lack of proper effort for the religious and moral training of the operatives.

The fifth is to embark in such an enterprise without sufficient capital.

The neglect of any one of these may lead to serious embarrassments, while the last, seemingly a matter which could easily be corrected and overcome, is a prolific source of failure, and has led to more ruinous disasters than any other thing.

In getting up a manufacturing company, the first thing to be considered, after procuring an ample capital, is what kind of goods is to be made. In deciding this point, no attention should be paid to the prevailing idea at the south, that an effort should be made to supply the home demand, and make a little of everything. Some will recommend osnaburgs, which are in the minds of everybody—others will suggest coarse stripes—others again, denims, drills for bags—while cotton yarn will be advised by another—cotton ropes will be recommended by others again, as a means of saving waste cotton. I would say, work up your waste as closely as you can into your cloth, and sell the balance to the paper-makers. If you start out to make cloth, don't attempt to put up yarn, for in a well organized factory it can be put into cloth for a half cent a pound more than the cost of reeling and bundling yarn. The cloth is marketable everywhere, and the yarn is not.

If you put up a large mill, do not attempt to make osnaburgs, for that branch of manufacturing is already overdone at the south. I could put up a mill of 12,000 spindles and 500 looms to run on osnaburgs, and make the goods so cheap as to drive every mill at the south out of that branch of business, and stop the only mill at the north which is now making them. One factory of 500 looms would supply all the southern demand for that article. The business is already crowded by southern competition, as I can readily show, by stating the fact that osnaburgs have been selling in Charleston, for a long time past, at from sixteen to seventeen cents per pound, while the Graniteville shirtings and sheetings brought from twenty-three to twenty-four cents a pound. There is not half a cent a pound difference in the cost of manufacturing, all things being equal. There is a demand of from 500 to 1,000 bales of shirtings, sheetings, or drills, for one of osnaburgs. The whole world consumes the former, while the southern States only the latter. There is only one factory, with 200 looms, making osnaburgs in all New England, while the looms which are working on goods, which assimilate to the Graniteville's, will amount to nearly as many thousands.

The first thing to be learned by a southern manufacturer is, that he must ultimately, if not immediately, look to a wholesale market for his products; and this seems hitherto to have been almost entirely overlooked by the southern manufacturer. He should have no other aim than to take the place of the importer in supplying the wholesale dealer. He must, therefore, expect to meet and prepare himself to overcome foreign and all other competition. In order to do this, every operation about the establishment should be simple and direct. The whole establishment, however large, should be built and arranged to make some one thing rapidly, cheaply, and perfectly. Success would be certain anywhere at the south with such a factory, and an exemption from the causes named as the sources of embarrassment, with ordinary industry in making any fabric for which there is a large general demand. If we had the water-power at Graniteville, and were going to erect three or four such factories there, I would consider it the interest of the proprietors to make no other size thread than No. 14, which we are now making. It might be advisable to make some change by weaving cloths of different widths.

The next thing to be looked to is a constant, efficient motive power. If it be water-power, care should be taken to select a location that will not subject the establishment to interruption from high or low water. The dams should be strong and of the most durable material, and the canals and conducting pipes leading the water to the wheels three or four times as large as those laid down in scientific works, under the rules for demonstrating the velocity of running water. A mill pond may be occasionally drawn down a foot, or, perhaps, two or three feet; grass will grow in canals and obstruct the flow of water, and a thousand other obstacles may come in to impede the free discharge of water, which are not taken into such calculations. Then, again, great care should be exercised in the choice of driving wheels, their power and efficiency should be fully tested before the machinery is put into the mill; and, by all means, let everything be so strong and so firmly fitted up as to place the establishment beyond the contingency that embarrasses and sometimes ruins such concerns, that of stopping a factory to repair or renew the driving power. In order to save a few hundred dollars in the first outlay of wheels, I have known instances where five times the sum thus saved has been wasted in repairs which, if added to the first outlay, would have procured the most efficient and durable motors; aye, worse than this,

I can point to instances where establishments have worked under the disadvantage of defective power two or three years without making any profit, when a full and constant driving power would have enabled the parties to have earned twenty, thirty, or forty thousand dollars per annum; even in some instances losing the opportunity of making more than one hundred thousand dollars by endeavoring to avoid the expenditure of two, three, or five thousand dollars extra in the beginning. Steam-power should be, in all instances, avoided at the south, for it is too costly to be used in any place that would be suitable for the location of a cotton factory, and will place a concern, all other things being right, under some serious disadvantages.

The location of a cotton factory is the next thing to be looked after. It should not be in a city, for it will be impossible, there, to control the moral habits of the operatives, and to keep up a steady, efficient, and cheap working force. Factory operatives about a city, independent of the high wages that it will be necessary to pay them, will be unsteady and not reliable help; if originally from the country, they will be easily frightened away by any appearance of epidemic. The location of a factory should be as far away from a city as the facilities for transportation will admit; it cannot be placed on a spot that is too much secluded from a communication with the world; the advantage of remoteness from towns is in some instances sufficient to counterbalance a large transportation account. Accessibility to a good cotton market should be kept in view, and also the healthfulness of the situation.

Many persons labor under the erroneous impression that a declining city may be resuscitated by the introduction of large manufactories, giving employment to the poor people and occupation to untenanted houses. In the abstract the theory is correct, but it will not apply to cotton factories on a large scale. Such establishments will have an injurious tendency, by increasing pauper population. Country people brought into a city for such purposes injure themselves and the community into which they are removed.

All kinds of mechanical labor will thrive in cities, and add to the general prosperity, population, and wealth. Large machine shops do well in towns, where all kinds of artisans thrive—workers in iron, steel, brass, copper, tin, lead, wood, and leather, the printer, bookbinder, hatter, plumber, clothier, and mantuamaker, silversmith, jeweller, brush and comb maker, manufacturer of firearms and military goods, and a

thousand other occupations—these spread themselves over a city in lanes and byways, their shops occupying houses of every description. Back buildings, cellars, and garrets, all afford room for the various departments of handicraft work which give employment to every class of a community. The proprietors, bookkeepers, salesmen, overseers, and laborers, are drawn from every division of society.

There will be distresses in all cities. We frequently hear of females who have to labor with the needle sixteen to twenty hours in twenty-four for mantuamakers and clothiers, and receive wages that will scarcely afford the common necessities of life. The condition of such people would not be improved by factory labor in a city. In order to advance and improve the condition of our towns, we must have an increase of population and productive power in the country. The city of Boston, thirty years ago, was as stagnant and stationary as any of our southern cities. It is now the wealthiest and one of the most populous cities in the Union. The change was brought about by the establishment of such factories as Graniteville throughout the circumjacent country, by this means absorbing all the spare mercantile capital of Boston, which, with its reproduction, set the whole country to work. The reaction built up Boston, and she, in turn, made railroads, improved magnificent water powers, which gave rise, again, to manufacturing cities and a market for every product that the artisans of Boston produced. Thus, by action and reaction of capital and the retention of it at home, the city of Boston, so far as money capital is concerned, has become the London of America. Pretty nearly the whole work has been performed by prosecuting the manufacture of coarse cottons, which business properly belongs to the southern States.

I will now consider the fourth cause of embarrassment or failure—that is, the neglect of the religious and moral training of the factory people. This cannot be accomplished in a town or city where the people live in rented houses, beyond the control of the proprietors. This matter has been almost wholly neglected throughout the south, even in situations where it might be secured. Companies and individuals have attributed their inability to procure steady and efficient help to an indisposition on the part of the poor people of the south to work. There never was a greater mistake. They seem to have been ignorant, too, of the fact that to get a steady supply of workers, a population must be collected that will regard themselves as a community, and that two essential elements are neces-

sary to the building up, moral growth, and stability of such a collection of people, viz: a *church* and a *school house*. There is not a better class on the face of the globe, from which to procure factory laborers, than the poor people of South Carolina. I can safely say that it is only necessary to make comfortable homes in order to procure families that will afford laborers of the best kind. A large manufacturing establishment located anywhere in the State, away from a town and in a healthy situation, will soon collect around it a population who, however poor, with proper moral restraints thrown around them, will soon develop all the elements of good society. Self-respect and attachment to the place will soon find their way into the minds of such, while intelligence, morality, and well directed industry, will not fail to acquire position.

The fifth and last source of embarrassment, though not the least important, is the want of sufficient working capital. More establishments have failed from this cause than any other; millions of capital were sunk in the New England States before the enterprising manufacturers of that section of our country learned that, ere a manufactory was commenced, the proprietors should secure not only the necessary capital to pay for the entire property complete in all its parts, but also have mercantile capital enough to carry on a large trading establishment.

The want of this one thing has been the chief obstacle to success with southern establishments. I know not a single instance, except the Graniteville company, in which the capital has not been insufficient. No company should commence building a manufactory with a capital of \$200,000, and erect works costing 250 or \$300,000. After a work is commenced, and before it has yielded profits, to be short of capital, if it be a company, creates distrust amongst its owners as to the efficiency of its managers, and they will, generally, come up to an assessment very reluctantly. The credit of such a concern is at once impaired, thus giving it a bad start. If in debt when the establishment is completed, its situation is critical. In that position, if it meet with embarrassment from any of the causes named, and cannot go steadily forward and make goods as cheap as others, it not only loses the confidence of its own stockholders, but its failure becomes a by-word in the community, thereby delaying other enterprises. If it happen that such a company has to struggle along for a year or two with defective dams, an insufficient canal, or imperfect driving wheels, and in that way be prevented from making profits, and, perhaps, even worse than this, increasing its first debt by

expensive repairs and loss of interest, its affairs must become worse than desperate. Capitalists will shun it as they would a pestilence, and the stockholders, becoming alarmed, will often abandon such an establishment to the auctioneer's hammer; whereas, with proper foresight as to the real difficulty, and bold enterprising spirits to come to the rescue, it would have been a profitable concern and a good investment.

The Saluda company, which was organized in 1832, has stood for the last twenty-three years, a warning beacon to the whole south. That corporation commenced with a capital of \$50,000, a sum insufficient to build a good dam over the Saluda river. They built a house to hold 10,000 spindles and looms to weave the yarn. To erect such a factory and carry on such a work in Massachusetts, a capital of \$400,000 would have been raised; strange as it may appear, that with all the information attainable at that time, they commenced with the sanguine expectation of completing their works with that sum. It were needless to follow it through all its difficulties; the establishment dragged out a sickly existence of two or three years, and was finally sold under the hammer, not paying its debts. The site selected by this company was a magnificent location, just far enough from a town to be free from its corrupting influences on the factory operatives, but near enough for procuring mechanical aid and necessary mercantile supplies, and without expensive transportation for its raw material and manufactured goods. If that company had followed the course we have adopted, in first procuring ample capital, building a good dam over the Saluda, and procuring the best kind of machinery, made and arranged to manufacture some one leading article, of fine quality, with rapid and cheap production; then had they built a neat village with cheap cottages, costing from \$200 to \$300 a piece, in sufficient number to accommodate as many families as would be necessary to supply them with hands, also, a church or two, and had established a good school, together with such moral restrictions as with a little attention could have been brought to bear upon such a community; in short, if they had availed themselves of the lights that at that early day existed and were available, the first Saluda company would not have been under the necessity of purchasing negroes to run their machinery, but it would now be in existence with, possibly, three or four such factories as our Graniteville establishment. They could not have failed to pay a good interest on the capital invested, and would long since have returned to the owners, more than once over, the first capital put in. With the exception of the Saluda

company and the Charleston factory, there have been no positive failures and very few embarrassed concerns, and they labored under most of the defects that I have named as elements of embarrassment. There was no failure among the Georgia factories during the terrible pressure of 1850 and '51; they are now, with one or two exceptions, doing well. Those in the vicinity of Augusta, ten miles off, are paying 20 to 30 per cent. The DeKalb factory, near Camden, in our State, is making 15 per cent.; Vacluse, just above us, is making money; and had our establishment been as well organized, and supplied with skilful hands as at present, we might have paid dividends even in 1850 and '51.

Until Graniteville was established, there had been no systematic effort made for the moral and religious culture of factory operatives in any of the southern States. The prevailing opinion was, that the calling was a degrading one, and there was much truth in it. To this cause may be traced the difficulty that previously existed in procuring steady and efficient white operatives to work cotton factories. People, however poor, are not easily induced to place their children in the way of temptation and vice, or in situations that will degrade them. Of the two evils, immoral and vicious associations, or idleness coupled with extreme poverty and ignorance, I do not know but the latter was the choice of wisdom. Our system has more than realized our expectations. We have always had a pressure upon us for situations, and could in a month stock another factory with hands, while the Augusta and Columbus companies are always short of help, notwithstanding they pay much higher wages than we do.

I believe that our population at Graniteville, in general, is as pure and virtuous a community as can be found anywhere in the State. The ministers of the Gospel that have been located here all concur with me on that point. We are now beginning to feel the effects of our school, in the good order and discipline that prevails among the hands in the mill. All agree that we have as efficient a working force as can be found in any country.

Mr. Montgomery, who has had much experience in Scotland, and had charge of large mills in New England and New York, thinks that for stability, controllability and productive power, they are not surpassed anywhere. A majority of our skilful manufacturing overseers are South Carolinians, who learned the business here. We may really regard ourselves as the pioneers in developing the real character of the poor people of South Carolina. Graniteville is truly the home of

the poor widow and helpless children, or for a family brought to ruin by a drunken, worthless father. Here they meet with protection, are educated free of charge, and brought up to habits of industry under the care of intelligent men. The population of Graniteville is made up mainly from the poor of Edgefield, Barnwell, and Lexington districts. From extreme poverty and want, they have become a thrifty, happy, and contented people. When they were first brought together, the *seventy-nine* out of a hundred grown girls who could neither read nor write were a by-word around the country; that reproach has long since been removed. We have night, Sunday and week-day schools. Singing-masters, music-teachers, writing-masters, and itinerant lecturers all find patronage in Graniteville, where the people can easily earn all the necessities of life, and are in the enjoyment of the usual luxuries of country life. The finest silk dresses abound, and, in some instances, pianos may be seen that have been purchased with the surplus earnings of the girls. Our Savings Bank has 8 or \$9,000 on deposit from the operatives, and when our new stock is issued you will find our operatives among the subscribers. Were our shares \$100, instead of \$500, very many of them would be found among the owners of Graniteville.

It is by this occupation, and this alone, (at the present day,) that the poor people can be made profitable to themselves, and to the country at large. When a taste for manufacturing prevails, and our intelligent capitalists are placed in situations which will require them to look after such people, they will all be brought out from their cabins of poverty, to mingle with enlightened men in accelerating the spirit of progress of the present age. There will then be no difficulty in the disbursement of the free school fund of South Carolina—when these people are brought together in villages, the difficulty that has puzzled our wisest politicians will cease to exist. As manufacturers, they will in a few years become a regenerated people, and do more for our State than all the cotton planters have yet done; for the prevailing policy of the planter seems to have been to exhaust the soil as rapidly as possible, with a view of abandoning the country.

The laborers of a cotton factory must of necessity be drawn from the poorest class of a country—hardy, economical and simple in all their habits. With a little attention to the education and moral training of their children, and opportunities afforded for the religious culture of such a people, they may be collected together in villages isolated and away from the corrupting influence of city vices, as they are at Graniteville, and be

made industrious, intelligent and happy, and withal quite as available in the production of wealth to the State, and in advancing general prosperity, as any people on earth. Remove the same class of people into cities to work factories, and what becomes of them? The pay is insufficient for the artificial wants of a city life; they will be regarded by the community around them as little better than paupers and outcasts, will soon enter into the most corrupting dissipation and vice, and will not remain such steady and efficient operatives as are necessary to the profitable prosecution of manufacturing. Aside from the all absorbing profits which should be the pole star with those who expect to thrive in any branch of business, there is a charity in the matter, which will attract many good men who have been fortunate enough to become retired capitalists.

All of you must be aware of the condition of the class of people I allude to. What progress have they made in the last hundred years? and what is to be their future condition, unless some mode of employment be devised to improve it? A noble race of people! reduced to a condition but little above the wild Indian of the forest, or the European gipsy, without education, and in many instances unable to procure the food necessary to develop the natural man. They seem to be the only class of people in our State who are not disposed to emigrate to other countries, while our wealthy and intelligent citizens are leaving us by scores, taking with them the treasures which have been accumulated by mercantile thrift, as well as by the growth of cotton and the consequent exhaustion of the soil. If a proper state of things existed in South Carolina, this class of emigrating southern capitalists would remain, and invest their means in such enterprises as would add to the strength and general welfare of the State. But under the existing circumstances, the accumulation of wealth by well directed industry often proves the strongest incitement to emigration. The thrifty planter has his mind fixed on the fertile lands of the far west, and only waits for the accumulation of sufficient capital to make a good settlement, to leave the land which he has been most industriously pushing to exhaustion, for some Eldorado of the west. The thrifty merchant, when ready to retire from the toil and dangerous uncertainty of a mercantile life, looks around him in vain for any employment for capital other than shaving notes, or the purchase of land and negroes, neither of which may suit his inclination, the consequence is, that he is a candidate for emigration. If the merchant or planter be

strongly attached to the soil, his capital will precede him out of the State, and ultimately he, or his children, will follow.

It would be an interesting statistical table which should set forth the number of valuable citizens, and the amount of money and negro capital, which has left the State of South Carolina during the last 25 years. I think it would be within bounds to assume that the planting capital withdrawn within that period would, judiciously applied, have drained every acre of swamp land in South Carolina, besides resuscitating the old, worn out land, and doubling the crops—thus more than quadrupling the productive power of the agriculture of the State. What a melancholy picture! But this is not all. Let us look for a moment at the course of things among our mercantile classes. We shall not have to go much further back than twenty-five years to count up twenty-five millions of capital accumulated in Charleston, and which has left with its enterprising owners, who have principally located in northern cities. This sum would build factories enough to spin and weave every pound of cotton made in the State, besides making railroads to intersect every portion of the up-country, giving business facilities to the remotest points. We can cite a case familiar to you all, a melancholy illustration of the imperceptible transmission of our capital to other sections of the country. I allude to a gentleman recently deceased, one of our largest stockholders, who was well known to the people of South Carolina, whose heart throbbed for the promotion of every industrial enterprise in the State. The idea of giving employment and education to our poor people was ever uppermost in his mind. He has left an enduring testimony of his philanthropy, in a large bequest for the education of the poor children at Graniteville. He was a ready contributor to the establishment of our town, which, I trust, is to be the successful pioneer, and the beacon that may lead other capitalists safely into that needed branch of industry. At the decease of that gentleman, who embraced every opportunity of investment in manufacturing which seemed to promise safety, it was found that three-fourths of a million of his capital was invested in New York, and large sums in the far west, pushing forward enterprises in that new country. We have another living instance before us. One of our large stockholders, a gentleman who, by dilligent industry, has amassed a large fortune in South Carolina, has recently located permanently in New York, where his capital will, in all probability, soon follow him and be lost to our State forever.

WM. GREGG, *Pres. G. M. C.*

SOUTHERN MANUFACTURES.

Georgia has earned the soubriquet of the "Empire State of the South." And well does she wear the honor. She was the first southern State that undertook the establishment of manufactures. It was at a time when cotton was extremely low, and a large majority of the planters of the south pursued the suicidal policy of raising more of the staple as a remedy for the existing evil, thus increasing the difficulty they were endeavoring to surmount. It was true that a few Georgia planters conceived the idea of directing a portion of the capital employed in the growth, and apply it to the manufacture of cotton; and they reasoned correctly, when they thought it would thus be more profitably employed. They commenced building manufactories for themselves, and finding it a good thing, have continued to increase until the State can now boast of over half a hundred cotton factories in the full tide of success.

To give an idea of the extraordinary degree of success they have attained, we give the following statement of the condition of the Macon Manufacturing Company: During the last six months its clear profits have been at the rate of seventeen per cent. per annum on the amount of the stock. It has declared a dividend of ten per cent., and has accumulated during the last sixteen months, over the dividends, a reserve fund of thirty-seven thousand dollars. As flourishing as this exhibit shows the Macon company to be, it is said that many other companies in the State can make an equal showing.

In view of these facts it seems to us most strange that cotton manufactories, so far as the south is concerned, are confined almost exclusively to the State of Georgia. Are there not men of energy, enterprise and capital in Tennessee and Mississippi, who would like to embark in such a profitable undertaking? Next to Georgia, we believe that Tennessee can boast of more factories than any other southern State, and yet there is plenty of room for more. The city of Memphis presents greater advantages for becoming a manufacturing city than any other in the entire southwest. She has every facility close at home and cheap, except coal, and the recent discovery of a coal mine, about one hundred miles above the city, will obviate the difficulties now experienced on that score, so soon as the aid of machinery can be brought to bear in evolving the black treasure now snugly buried beneath the earth.

Is it not reasonable to suppose, then, that it will not be long before much of the capital employed in other channels, and some not now employed at all, will find a manufacturing field in which to operate? Surely the immense advantages which will result from its being so employed must be apparent to all.

THE MANUFACTURE OF SALT.

Mr. Thomassy, whom we have already mentioned as being desirous of establishing a salt manufactory in the neighborhood of New Orleans, published some weeks since an interesting account of the nature of salt in the Albany (New York) Evening Journal. This article is equally applicable to the south, where the greater power of evaporation in the air fully compensates for the deficiency in the same quality of the water. The waters of the Gulf of Mexico possess from three to three and a half per cent. of salt—the same as those of the Mediterranean, where this business has been carried on with great success. Mr. Thomassy is of opinion that the establishment of a manufactory of this kind could not fail to be profitable. We have great pleasure in subjoining the communication to which we have alluded:

The United States are in the world, perhaps, the richest country in salt springs and mineral salt of every description; and they, however, are importing, each year, about twelve million bushels of foreign salt, and for such importation paying two or three millions of dollars.

In the United States the State of New York is especially rich in salt springs having twelve, fifteen or eighteen per cent. of salt; and still this State imports annually two or three million bushels of foreign salt for the interior consumption, when France and Italy, having only three or four per cent. of salt in their sea water, are manufacturing, with a brine so weak, a quantity of salt sufficient not only for themselves, but for a large exportation.

Why then are the United States, and especially the leading State of New York, so backward in the manufacture of a product of prime and vital necessity? I do not now enter upon an explanation of the cause of this; but I shall submit on this matter the result of my own experience.

Everywhere in the south of France the salt, made by solar and natural evaporation, is a great deal cheaper than when made in boilers by artificial heat, and this solar salt costs, for the 100 kilogrammes of 232 pounds, (four bushels,) eight or nine cents. The actual cost of salt to the manufacturer in the south of France, in the last twenty years, is consequently, per each bushel, about two cents. This fact is of public notoriety; and by some new improvements in salt works, which I myself introduced in Italy in 1848, the bushel was produced for only one and a half cents from the brine of the Adriatic sea, which has about two and a half per cent. of salt.

In Syracuse, the greatest market of American salt, the cost to the manufacturer per bushel is three times as much; it is six or seven cents, in spite of the richness of the brine, which has eighteen per cent. of salt. Why then so incredible a difference? Because, according to the report of Professor Cook, of 1854, (page 14,) in the present method of manufacture by solar evaporation in Syracuse, about three-fourths of the evaporating power is lost, whereas, in France, the whole power is controlled and so used as to proportionally reduce the cost of the manufacture, diminishing it from six or seven cents to about two cents.

Now, the old manufacturer, or new enterprising capitalists, have in this question two certainties. The first is a loss of about three-quarters of the evaporating power in Syracuse, certified, not by me, but by Professor Cook, in his official report to the superintendent of the salt springs. The second certainly is, that a better method of evaporation could be employed in the United States, as it is in France, producing three times more salt, or the same quantity three times cheaper. It is also certain that the natural and improved method of evaporation has always produced the best salt for provisions. Being then superior, by the economy and by the quality of its products, this method may be adopted, with immense profit, in all American salt works, and especially in the large manufactures at Syracuse.

The profits of this improved method are so sure, that it has had a triumphant success, even with sea water, on the French coast of the Mediterranean and the Italian coast of the Adriatic, the first sea water having three or four per cent. salt, and the second only two and a half. The brine of Syracuse having eighteen per cent. will give, consequently, a great deal more facilities for the application of the French method and of my improvements made in Italy; and it assures four or five times as much salt, and proportionally cheaper than in France. But, as in Syracuse, the labor costs twice as much as in France—labor costing a dollar a working day instead of forty or fifty cents—this increased cost will diminish a little the economy of the French method; so that this method will be not five or four times more profitable but only three or two times, and will produce in Syracuse the bushel of salt for about one cent. instead of six or seven cents as now.

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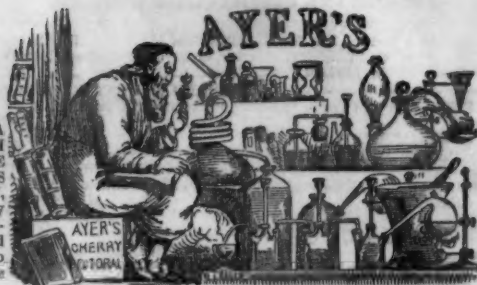
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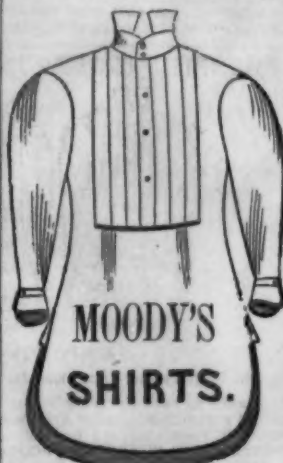
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